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We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

The Index to the SATURDAY REVIEW July-December 1904 will be sent free of charge to subscribers on application.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

Lord Spencer already sees himself Prime Minister. His letter calls to mind Mr. Morley's description of Mr. Gladstone on the announcement of dissolution in 1892. He had already kissed hands, says Mr. Morley, and saw himself at the head of a four-figure majority. We know what was the career of that Liberal Government. Lord Rosebery knows too, and prefers to stand aside for Lord Spencer. We do not at all picture Lord Rosebery flushed with excitement at the thought of dissolution, though "the fire smouldering in that sad heart of his," to adapt Dr. Jessopp's words on poor Borrow, may flicker into a fitful smile at the thought of an empty chamber to hear the Prime Minister and a crowded house for Lord Rosebery, the outcast of the Liberal party. Lord Spencer does well to be happy before the event.

His manifesto contains nothing very startling. He is of course dead against Mr. Chamberlain's fiscal policy, and he repudiates retaliation; which must end in preference and protection. The Colonial Conference would be out of order; it must follow, not precede, popular judgment on these fiscal questions. There is however some special significance in the clause on education. Lord Spencer makes it perfectly clear that the Liberals will turn all Church and other "voluntary" schools into undenominational State schools; real religious teaching is to go by the board. We hope the leaders of the Church will take notice. On Chinese labour he says existing contracts are to be observed but not renewed. Then he promises trade-union legislation—the strongest item in his programme—and of course expenditure is to be reduced and taxation to go down. The words "Home Rule" are not to be found in the whole letter and the army and navy are ignored.

Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was at High Wycombe on Thursday, so that the report of his speech and Lord Spencer's letter appeared on the same day in the public press. Yet, oddly enough, Sir Henry gave not the

faintest sign of being impregnated by the programme of his leader. Are we to assume that either he had not seen the programme, or, having seen it, did not think it worth mentioning? It strikes one, on the face of it, as rather a hole in the corner affair.

The Irish members meet to-day to consider the plan of campaign for the coming session. They should consider Mr. Herbert Gladstone's speech at Leeds last Monday. If not a leader, Mr. Gladstone is peculiarly in his leaders' confidence. The political world to-day does not take him with the exuberance that Lowe and Acton professed at the time of his first contest. Still he is a politician of balance and sympathy. He is chief whip. Even more—he is son of his father. And what are we to think when the son of the author of Home Rule for Ireland does no more than suggest Home Rule under the general words "Irish questions"? And we hope Lord Spencer's silence will also please the Irish Members. Lord Spencer has since explained that his letter was not intended as a manifesto of the party, but merely as a substitute for undelivered speeches. If it is not a manifesto, a more infelicitous mode of expressing private sentiment can hardly be imagined.

Much that Mr. Wyndham said on Wednesday was obvious. But what did he mean by saying that retaliation is an ugly word but war an uglier? We do not quite comprehend. It is as though one were to say "Retaliation is an ugly word but—there are milestones on the Dover road". Mr. Wyndham at his best—and he is often very near it—is so lustrous that people are apt to expect a great deal from him. But he does not always come off when speaking to the unfastidious public audience. Mr. Wyndham has sometimes seemed to observers a variable star. And his variations follow one another so quickly. Now, like Argol, he is almost obscure; anon, like Argol, he flashes one of the most brilliant objects in his political constellation. But Argol, at brightest, is never above the second magnitude; surely Mr. Wyndham must shine presently as a star of the first.

No case is so good that it could not be destroyed by an Ulsterman's intolerance. There is certainly a case against Sir Antony MacDonnell, whom some Protestant Leagues want Mr. Balfour to dismiss. He is a man who has rather enjoyed offending people. It is his way to appropriate to his own initiative what is done in Ireland without perceiving that it is not the proper

rôle of an under secretary to talk even off the platform of "my policy". India, where every man is something of an autocrat, was not for him a good training and no doubt he feels it difficult in his later office to express himself in under-secretarial idiom. His many indiscretions have been assertive not accidental—except perhaps in that unfortunate preference of Sligo to Ulster—and a combination against him was a foregone conclusion. But to found a plea for his dismissal on his Roman Catholicism is to deny one of his chief qualifications for the post. His predecessor was a Roman Catholic. By the way how was Sir Edward Carson's somewhat irregular pronouncement against Sir Antony first kept out of the "Times" report, and then published by itself?

His constituency does not quite know how to take Mr. Rigg. He was elected, though a Liberal, by the votes of both parties. He was once so greatly devoted to the habit of inviting opponents to fight out issues with him that he was said never to entertain one of his own party. But their accumulated argument was useless till Mr. Chamberlain began his fiscal speeches, and after reading a certain number Mr. Rigg confessed to a conversion so thorough as to outdo the proverbial convert. A speech he delivered this week has given occasion for the jibes of the ex-friends; and his enthusiasm was rather too much for his humour when he talked of "leading on" the Unionist party to victory. But Mr. Rigg is one of the youngest of members; and his hero-worship not necessarily ludicrous because he once posed as epicurean.

Sir Edward Carson is the most courteous of men, and one of the kindest. It must have been sore provocation indeed that made him apply the birch so vigorously to Mr. Churchill at Manchester. For some schoolboys the birch is the only thing, and Sir Edward Carson knows it. Mr. Churchill resents feminine qualities in a statesman. Conspicuous amongst feminine qualities, at any rate with well-bred women, though Mr. Churchill may not have observed this, are gentleness and refinement. The antipathy is explained.

Captain Lee is to be commiserated on the pother over his speech at Eastleigh. He made a very proper if popular explanation of the recent naval changes which, as everyone knew, involved a policy of greater vigilance in the North Sea; and the Germans who exploited the reference to this sea might have noticed that Captain Lee was not less explicit in reference to the Atlantic. We have seen no American paper which associated this with President Roosevelt's demand for three battle-ships. The changes of course were strategic not political; but it is not the least surprising that the German press took this course, when they had the lead of English papers which spoke freely of war with Germany. The papers were of course of no account, but the average newspaper office in Germany is without ability to distinguish the quality of "ha'penniness". It is time some international peace syndicate should post up in all newspaper offices a list of the papers in other countries that count. It would be invaluable to editors, if any are in search of truth rather than sensation.

The quiet restored in S. Petersburg by General Trepov and in some smaller degree by the Tsar's speech has been broken by fresh strikes of workmen; but everywhere, in Warsaw, as in S. Petersburg, the political element has steadily diminished. The men have even protested to the Government against political agitators. Perhaps they begin to see that their industrial aims, which they hold in common with the workmen of Europe, constitute their strength and do not endanger their patriotism or loyalty. A conflict between strikers and soldiers at Lodz, in which some thirty or forty workmen were wounded, is the one instance of a riotous outbreak; otherwise the management of the fresh strikes in S. Petersburg, as in Poland, may be taken as the best proof that all political intentions have been surrendered. The strikes of railway workers, which have extended even to Irkutsk, are more likely to trouble the authorities than any demand for constitutional freedom and some concessions in the

hours of work and rates of pay have been already granted.

The debates of some section of the intellectuals, the protests of the students, and the consequent threat to close the schools, prove that political agitation exists; but there is no sign that the constitutional desires of the class represented by the students have been absorbed by the workmen in their corporate efforts. Naturally some interaction between the two departments of politics and industry is to be expected as an incidental result of the situation. The immense proportion of strikers to population in Lodz and other districts involves a disturbance of all general arrangements, and in this case has had the very serious result of arresting the mobilisation of the reserve troops for General Kuropatkin. Maxim Gorki, who stands as a type of the school we call in England the philosophic radical, is still in prison; but certainly his life is safe. Tender Conservatives who wince at Gorki's convict clothes might remember their amusement at Mr. O'Brien's breeches.

The issue of the battle of Sandepu has been more personal than strategic. General Gripenberg is thought to have exceeded orders in developing the attack on the Japanese left, and many accounts of disagreement between him and General Kuropatkin have been published. They are not perhaps to be taken more seriously than the news that the Commander-in-Chief is suffering from "cerebral anæmia", a malady with too good a name to be neglected by correspondents. Nor is there confirmation of the news that General Gripenberg is to be recalled. Since the battle and the withdrawal of the Russian right wing to Chang-tun on the Hun-ho, no considerable movement has been reported, and even general cannonading and outpost skirmishes have lapsed. The cold is intense, but will less hinder operations than the first thaw.

It is stated that the Paris Commission, which finished the taking of evidence last Saturday, will conclude by Monday week; but the members themselves have not so hopeful an expectation. The work is difficult and delicate. During the commission the admirals, on whom the whole responsibility rests, had no authority over the lawyers and two of them were in continual fear of what questions their own lawyers might ask. The sifting that remains is not less difficult and delicate; and no one quite sees how in so wide a reference one finding which shall represent the opinion of a majority is to be agreed upon. If a majority decide that the torpedo-boats were phantoms, it still remains to say whether the Russians believed or had excuse for believing that they saw torpedo-boats. It is worth notice that the Paris press believes in Captain Klado, though everyone is asking, why no witness from the damaged "Aurore"? This omission at least in Paris is taken as the chief flaw in the Russian case.

The Sultan of Turkey is much in the position of the labourer who owes money to the butcher and is thereby compelled for all time to get all his meat from that source. The difference is that he is in the clutches of two tradesmen; and both threaten him with all manner of penalties if he does not deal with them exclusively. In the last instance the German pressure was more effective than the French and an *Irada* at last issued giving the whole of the order of the new guns to Krupp. M. Constans, who had demanded a third of the contract for France, in consequence threatened to leave Constantinople at once, in the manner of the irate colonel who vowed that he would leave the shop without his change if it was not brought immediately. He afterwards took further action in closing the French money market to the Sultan and inducing the Ottoman Bank to withdraw its proposal for negotiating a loan.

The remarkable feature of the whole dispute is the strong political pressure which has been brought to bear by both French and German Governments to forward commercial enterprises. The hold which France has is the Sultan's desire to extend the Syrian railways for which French capital as well as French

energy was promised; but the influence is likely to be weakened, to the benefit of Germany, if the Deutsche Bank, for the sake of future influence, arranges the loans refused by the Ottoman Bank. M. Constans has indeed won a partial recovery of the position; but if one thing is certain in the foreign relations of the Porte it is that Germany has a mastery of the situation, reflected, but certainly not exaggerated, in her commercial prosperity in Asia Minor.

The severance of Austria and Hungary in all but a shadowy loyalty to the Emperor is being gravely discussed in Vienna and is even publicly urged by some of the German members. Count Andrássy is still retained by the King and has wisely advised the summoning of the leader of the Independent party. M. Kossuth, to whom Count Apponyi advertises his complete subordination, is at the head of a party which, if it has not a majority by itself, would overwhelm any Liberal opposition and has the superior strength of a simple and drastic policy. M. Kossuth preaches moderation, but all he means is the present maintenance of the dynastic position. The natural sequel to his fiscal, military, and linguistic theories of independence is the approximation of Austria to Germany and the isolation of Hungary as yet another little disturbed kingdom in Central Europe. This curious and foolish reaction towards small states is being also illustrated in the discussions between Norway and Sweden who can come to no terms on the question of Consuls. The dispute has perhaps hurried King Oscar into his decision to resign the active work of kingship to his son.

Last week for the first time for many years no mails went to Australia; and so far as can be seen we shall have to be content for the future with the fortnightly service of the P. and O. This pitiable failure in common patriotism is immediately due to the refusal of the Federal Government of Australia to pay a share of its mail subsidy to any company which employs lascars on its ships. Both motive and result are lamentable. The Australians deny the existence of a British empire in denying countenance to our Indian subjects, and the only effect of their insular exclusiveness is to divert business into the way of other nations. Though there is but one Government mail a fortnight, there are several ways of getting letters to Australia. One of the simplest is to send them by French ship from Marseilles; and the French sailor not the Australian workman will get what benefit the British loss entails. Mr. Birrell suggests this week that patriotism is as often hatred of another as love of your own country. Some patriotism, it seems, is denial of your own and generosity to another.

Most people who have seen the two together have been struck by the dwarfing of our great battleships by the ordinary liner. A comparison between the two is suggested this week by accounts in the "Standard" of a view of the "Caronia" at Glasgow and the hoisting of the flag on H.M.S. "King Edward VII." at Devonport. The Cunarder is the largest vessel yet built in England and Sir William May's flagship the most formidable warship in the world. H.M.S. "King Edward VII." is 437 feet in length, the liner no less than 221 feet longer; but the wonder of the warship is her power. She is armoured as no ship has been armoured. She is belted with Krupp armour of 8 and 10 inches thickness. Her guns are protected with nickel steel of 6 to 15 inches. Her double "turtle-back protective deck" is plated with outer and inner casings of 2-inch and 1-inch steel, and all superstructure has been reduced to a minimum. She would appear invulnerable if it were not for knowledge of the power of her four main guns, which are calculated to be of sufficient energy to penetrate 16 inches of the hardest Krupp plating at 3,000 yards. Such is the vessel, the first of her class, which the Japanese are now laying down a warship to excel.

The finding of the Commission on "Food Supply in time of War" is, we have reason to believe, completed,

and contains several drastic suggestions, of which the most precise is a recommendation to establish national granaries, as a precaution against famine. The sense of this necessity is a remarkable acknowledgment of the weakness of the position entailed by the destruction of agriculture, and it is obvious that, if the Commission so decides, its judgment will have to be taken as a weighty and authoritative contribution to an essential section of the fiscal question. To give one incidental instance of the interaction of the two subjects: if England is established as the principal market for Canadian corn, no enemy but the American will find it easy to interrupt the connexion between Halifax and Kerry; and our risk will be the less by that source of supply.

Mr. Balfour made it plain to the deputation he met on Tuesday that he has no encouragement for the permanent schemes it proposed in regard to unemployment. The unfitness of Government officials for undertaking works like afforestation and reclamation was one of his arguments; though apparently he rather approves of Mr. Long's co-operation with the scheme for land colonisation. He thinks it might help to check the illegitimate immigration into the towns. His other argument was that if permanent means of employment are provided, there is the danger of creating a class of people who rely on the State provision. He is afraid of altering the poor law lest encouragement should be given to the derelict.

But he seems hardly to take into account the fact that with a machinery designed to assist the real worker the poor law, as we know it now, could be applied with much more stringency to the worthless than it can be at present. The one thing in which he agreed with the deputation was that some permanent machinery should be adopted which should always be ready to deal with such occasions as the present distress. He will not commit the State to any experiments, and whatever can be done he would look to the local authorities to initiate and carry through. We have no sympathy with his inclination to put aside the State as if it were barred from this class of functions. Besides if he is in agreement with Mr. Long's colonisation project and his permanent means of meeting special distress, it must follow that the superintendence of a secretary of state must carry with it a certain amount of Government intervention which will increase as time goes on.

As to State reforestation, it by no means follows that it is undesirable because existing landowners do not effect it. Newman describes tree plantation as a most graceful act because of its unselfishness. Unfortunately the selfish interests of landowners may tend to the destruction of timber. The most melancholy instance of this is the wholesale destruction of the forests of Ireland by the Elizabethan and Cromwellian settlers. So far as modern England goes many landowners are too poor to plant trees. Even with the more wealthy peers and squires the steady tendency of legislation to facilitate the breaking up of large estates would weigh against the incurring of expense which, as they might think, would benefit only the descendants of other people. Besides in a great scheme of afforestation rights of common would have to be equitably dealt with and this only the State could do. Further the main gain from reforestation would enure to the public and therefore it is only fair that the State should bear some portion of the burden.

The solicitors have obtained the right of audience in a large number of cases before the Licensing Committees appointed under the late Act. This was done in Norfolk against the advice of Lord Lindley. Here is another injustice to the Junior Bar, for certainly these licensing appeals ought to have been regarded as Quarter Sessions work. The legal press is however too dependent on solicitors to make any protest, and the Bar Council does nothing. The Bar has often been described as a trade-union; if so, so far as its junior members go, it is a singularly inefficient one.

The movement to prevent Welsh barrister M.P.s from accepting briefs for publicans is an old one in Wales. It began years ago in Carmarthenshire—a curious fact as the teetotal fanaticism is far stronger in the Northern than the Southern part of the Principality. Now it is specially rampant in North Wales. The most charitable explanation of this agitation is to ascribe it to a suspicion latent in the mind of a temperance fanatic that every nonconformist J.P. must think that no nonconformist M.P. would accept a brief except for a publican whom he knew to be immaculate. Personally we give the Welsh nonconformist J.P.s credit for more sense; but if their friends are right, the remedy is simple. Make no more nonconformist J.P.s in Wales or, if you do, don't let them sit on licensing cases. With Welsh Tory churchmen the appearance of the Liberal M.P. as his advocate would not help the publican. Apart from this folly there is unquestionably in Wales to-day among some strait-laced Pharisees much the same feeling that exists in some continental countries against the Jew. They desire so far as they can to make the publican an outlaw. In the interest therefore of minorities all the world over it is to be hoped that the Bar will not allow them to establish the principle that an unpopular class may not be allowed a free choice among legal advocates.

We are sorry to hear that the appeal to the Court of Arches on the Paignton rood-screen case, on which some time ago we had something to say, has been abandoned. The reason assigned by the incumbent and churchwardens of the church in question is the grave suspicion that exists as to the Court of Arches as at present constituted. We know that such suspicion exists, especially in the English Church Union, but we do not believe that it is well founded. Lord Penzance no doubt was only an Act of Parliament Judge; but both his successors, Sir Arthur Charles and Sir Lewis Dibdin, have been appointed in due canonical manner both to the office of Dean of Arches and to the judgeship of the Chancery Court of York. That they have also been appointed to the judgeship set up under the Public Worship Regulation Act may be regrettable, but cannot in any way affect the canonical character of their courts. By the way we hope that Mr. Chadwyck Healey has noted that Chancellor Kempe had given a faculty for a rood in the diocese of Newcastle.

We doubt whether after his singular experiences of last Tuesday, Lord James of Hereford will ever consent to precede Lord Halsbury as after-dinner speaker. Lord James presided at the Boz Club, and made some placid remarks about Charles Dickens. Lord Halsbury followed, and proceeded to jump and dance on Lord James in a way highly agreeable no doubt to himself. He protested against the mixture of morals and politics which his friend brought into his speech, and would not contemplate Dickens as social reformer or as a man above the sphere of party politics. On the contrary, Dickens, he declared, was a Liberal. We have a very misty idea as to Dickens' politics, but believe that Lord Halsbury was nearer the truth in this than Lord James. Blunt truth however is not quite what we look for in after-dinner oratory. The amusing thing is that the outlines of Lord James' speech were given in advance in the daily press.

Mr. Justice Darling was quite in his element when he was presiding over the quarrel between "Lovely Woman" and "Lovely Man". As a matter of fact "Lovely Woman" was a man, though "Lovely Man" was not a woman. Between a couple of vulgar skits there was not much to choose, but of course our featherweight judge must be on the side of the ladies. So he must needs treat the Court to a long reading from Clough, in order, as he said, to show how different was the poet's judgment of women from Mr. Crosland's; a matter absolutely irrelevant to the case. But it showed that he had read one of Clough's poems (are the lines in the well-thumbed Henry Southgate under "Woman"?) and was the ladies' champion.

MR. BALFOUR'S BURDEN.

THE burden of Arthur is a favourite theme of the prophets of the Opposition. Mr. Morley and Mr. Asquith quite catch something of the rhythm of the Hebrew prophets when they describe the impending doom of the Prime Minister; they pile up his iniquities until they outweigh the burden of the men of Tyre and Sidon. And then the minor prophets come in—Mr. Lloyd George, Mr. Robson, and the rest—all still on Mr. Balfour. Mr. Chamberlain they consigned to perdition so long since that they are now beginning to forget his burden and to speak of him almost as a righteous man beside Mr. Balfour. Apparently it was only purgatory whither the Home Rulers despatched this "lost soul", not perdition after all. Mr. Morley in particular is becoming almost a panegyrist of Mr. Chamberlain in his dreadful wrath against Mr. Balfour. Well, neither Mr. Balfour nor his followers are likely to be very much alarmed by all this solemn denunciation. If he had no heavier burden to bear than that, Mr. Balfour might face the coming session with a very light heart. As it is, we are very sure that he is not afraid to meet Parliament. The strong man armed is not afraid until a stronger than he arrives, and in the House of Commons and for parliamentary purposes we do not know who the stronger than Mr. Balfour is. If there is a stronger, he certainly does not sit on the Opposition side.

Yet Mr. Balfour's burden is certainly heavy; no one can know it so well as himself. It would be unfortunate in the extreme if he did not know it; for nothing but an absolutely clear understanding of the task to be done, and the difficulties in the way of doing it, can enable him to get home in the end. We do not see any advantage either from a party or from a national point of view in Unionists blinking their eyes to the dangers of the situation. Let us look facts in the face. If the rank and file appreciate the facts of the position, they will be the more careful in the observance of loyalty to their leader who alone in our judgment is able to steer the party through these awkward shoals. The burden is Mr. Balfour's own.

We are not at all afraid of Mr. Chamberlain adding to the burden. We have all heard, of course, that Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Balfour do not speak, &c. &c. It so admirably suits the game of the Opposition and of the Unionist free traders that Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain should quarrel that we may be sure that two such dull-witted men would go out of their way to help their opponents. Of course, even if there were a little feeling between them, they would not be able to control it to their own advantage. To gauge the effectual relations between these two men there is no need to resort to gossip—though if we must gossip, we are willing to hazard the statement that they were never on better terms in their lives—for their mutual attitude is dictated by interest. How can Mr. Balfour afford to quarrel with Mr. Chamberlain? How can Mr. Chamberlain afford to quarrel with Mr. Balfour? Each has a personal following: neither can dispense with the help of the other. Are they fools that they should injure themselves in order to spite each other? Little men will do that, but not men of the calibre of Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain. The case with Lord Rosebery and Sir William Harcourt was different. Sir William Harcourt had been passed over when he had the best claim on the premiership; he had served his party far more truly and more staunchly than Lord Rosebery and very much longer. He was, as it were, made to serve a political inferior and his legitimate political ambition was blighted. Mr. Balfour, on the other hand, is the natural leader of the Conservative party, by far the largest factor in the Unionist coalition, and he passed to the premiership with the enthusiastic assent of the whole Unionist party. Moreover Mr. Chamberlain's hands are much too full for him to have any desire to be Prime Minister. His work for the rest of his life is to convert the country to a policy of imperial preferential tariffs and thus take the first step toward the organic consolidation of the British people throughout the world. Is it likely that

with such a task before him he would desire to take upon him the multifarious and ceaselessly growing anxieties of Prime Minister? But Mr. Gladstone did when he was absorbed in carrying Home Rule. True, and even Mr. Gladstone was unequal to the strain. He lost his control over his Cabinet and his party, and did not carry Home Rule. He did not even attempt to keep in touch with the departmental work of his colleagues. Mr. Gladstone's failure will be warning enough to prevent any attempt at imitation on Mr. Chamberlain's part. It really is not Mr. Chamberlain's fault if a Unionist here or there—like that absurd Scotch candidate the other day—chooses to make a fool of himself by talking about deposing Mr. Balfour. It is difficult to have patience in discussing absurd talk of this kind; but much as we would prefer to ignore these canards, we cannot, for simple people are taken in by them. Let the Unionist rank and file calmly consider the probabilities of serious friction between Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain, and gossip of this sort will trouble them no more.

Mr. Balfour's difficulties are not in that quarter. He has rather to reckon with the spirit of his party. The Government is unpopular in the country—it is useless to question that—every Government at the end of four or five sessions is unpopular; and bye-elections everywhere are going against him. On too many Unionist members this has a merely depressing effect, disposing them to cavil unchivalrously at their leader instead of taking especial pains to help him in a time of stress. To the sullenness of these members must be added the indifference of those who do not desire to come back to Parliament. And there must also be thrown in the inevitable exhaustion of men who have been in office continuously for ten years. Mr. Balfour has grave temperamental troubles—not in himself—to face.

We must also admit that the sense of insecurity—or, if we may say so, temporariness—of the fiscal position is a very disturbing element. We have never hesitated to say that Mr. Balfour would have done much better to accept the policy of preferential tariffs at once and thus clear the air. It would have been better for all parties to know who was on what side. But the situation for this Parliament is made and Mr. Balfour has to steer us through the shoals and intricacies it has created. He considered that the Unionist Government had not done the work in other directions it ought to do during the present Parliament, and therefore felt bound to keep a sufficient majority together until that work was done. Some of it is of a very difficult nature. The army has been overhauled indeed—turned upside down, be-devilled—but it has not been reformed. In that quarter we doubt if Mr. Balfour will be able to do anything better than leave ill alone. There is in truth but one important piece of constructive work which at all costs he must carry out. A Bill to regulate alien immigration must be passed. It is urgently, almost wofully, required in the interests of the English poorer population in East London and some of the large provincial towns. The Bill is expected, and another disappointment would rightly condemn the Government in the eyes of thousands of most loyal supporters; and it must be a thorough Bill: there must be no stopping at criminal or diseased aliens: the destitute alien must be kept out quite as rigorously: only thus can the aggravation of overcrowding be abated. It would be well if some member of the Government could be in the crowd at the meeting to be held in Shoreditch next Monday night. He would be in a position to impress on his colleagues the urgency of dealing with the alien question. It would be well, too, if Mr. Balfour would take the Bill himself and not leave it to Mr. Akers-Douglas. It will not be an easy Bill to get through. In any case it could hardly be passed before July. So the Government see what is before them.

Mr. Balfour, of course with Lord Lansdowne, has earned, if he has not won, the country's gratitude for his conduct of foreign affairs; he has kept his head when the press and the people have not kept their heads; he has taken many imperial questions more seriously than have most prime ministers. His services to the country are greater than the public sometimes

realises. There was never a time when obligations of national duty and personal chivalry were stronger on Unionist members of Parliament to give Mr. Balfour ready and unflagging support.

THE CRISIS AND RUSSIAN NATIONAL CHARACTER.

RARELY if ever in the history of the whole world has there been a campaign as fertile in absorbing subjects for analysis as is the present Russo-Japanese contest in the Far East. The action and behaviour of troops on a battle-field are in many respects a faithful index of the nation which they represent, and this curiously enough holds good amid the varied vicissitudes and often almost insuperable difficulties which beset the modern conditions of warfare. Thus, in spite of the uniform cosmopolitan regulations for the training and discipline of the armies of all nations the individual soldier remains the true representative type of his countrymen. At this moment it is worth while to investigate the psychological features of the Russian temperament revealed not only on the scene of battle but also at the root of the present critical juncture of Russia's home affairs. An impartial examination of certain marked traits will not improbably show that the character of the Russian soldier has been grossly vilified by presuming authorities in this country, especially during the latter stages of the war. The kaleidoscopic events of the present campaign have forcibly brought to view the fact that the Japanese is of a higher standard of material than is to be found in Russia or probably in any other country for making a soldier. It is evident that his military training, coming on the top of a practical general education, helps freely to develop both his mental and physical capacities, and chisels him into a fighting unit fit to take the initiative in an emergency, independently of the leadership of his superiors. The Russian soldier is made of totally different stuff, born and bred as he is under wholly different conditions and surroundings. With little or no education to start with, and accustomed by nature to look upon himself as a minor and in tutelage, he lacks all faculty for acting on his own behalf. This may account for his want of stability in attack and yet comparative efficiency in defence, where his dogged tenacity and indefatigable endurance together with a certain inborn sense of slavishness to duty have earned for him special renown in the past and equal distinction to-day. Long before the introduction of serfdom and after, the Russian peasant, with a fatalistic belief in destiny has been accustomed ever to rely upon some superior force, against which it never occurred to him to rebel. Even so the Russian soldier, when facing an untoward difficulty or an apparent impossibility in performing his duty invariably remarks: Ah kak buit pro toe snayout starshiyeh—What to do now the elders (superiors) know best. Another everyday phrase constantly on his lips, when asked Why don't you do otherwise? is: Tak prikazano: Such are the orders. Of his unthinking, blind obedience to discipline Verestchagin has given an eloquent and pathetic example in his triptych picture "The Shipka Pass" where a sentry is depicted in three different stages of gradually freezing to death at his post, his "superiors" having forgotten to give the order to remove him. Over and over again we have had evidence of the Russian soldiers supporting, with a kind of fatalistic submission, privations of a well-nigh unendurable nature, defending trenches or citadel month after month—Sevastopol and Port Arthur are instances in point—suffering from want and dying by thousands from disease and from wounds without murmur, without complaint. During the Crimean War again, when railways were non-existent, the Russian troops had to march 300 to 400 miles to the battlefield, and not infrequently had to engage the enemy on the day of their arrival. Unfortunately we are apt to judge the Russian people too much by the action of their Government, and the latter's equivocal policy. If however we approach the native, simply in his private capacity, be he peasant, merchant or noble, and separate these entirely from office or grade, we

usually find that the better we know the Russian the more we like him. He is the last man to pick a quarrel, and although of an intensely excitable nature and inclined to be equally carried away by joy or sorrow, he seldom if ever shows fight. Of course we know that the Russian peasant beats his wife, but he beats her as his wife and property—not as a woman, for he fully realises the acknowledged doctrine and marriage law that the wife should be made to fear her husband. He feels too that he would lose the respect of his numerous family connexions did he not maintain discipline by physical means. The climatic and geographical conditions of Russia, enveloped as it is in snow for a third of the year when with the short days and long nights all possibility of work ceases, naturally help to produce a certain unwieldy lethargy of mind and body in the largest portion of the population, the agricultural, and have doubtless developed the peasant's power of endurance at the expense of any initiative faculty.

The training and education of the Russian also—and this applies to all classes alike—are artificial and unhealthy. An absence of athletics and field sports drives the youthful community to abnormal forms of amusement. It leads the peasant into laziness and drunkenness, and renders the youth of the upper classes precocious and blasé in dissipation. Although serfdom was neither so ancient nor so long established an institution in Russia as is generally supposed, it nevertheless had an immense effect in moulding the character of the nation during its most impressionable stages. In the first place, it created a wider gulf between the superior or ruling classes than in any other country except perhaps in India. For a long period this left no room for a middle class, and the nation was sharply divided into the elders, superiors, rulers, whatever we may choose to call them, and the tillers of the soil. It is a gross mistake however to say that "the Russian peasant somewhat resembles the negro, and that he never respects a man who treats him as a human being". The very colour of the negro's skin is as great an obstacle to his social equality with the white races as that existing between sharply defined castes in India. The Russian peasant, being attached as a serf to the land which he cultivated, never descended to a sense of slavery in the abject signification of the word. He always had a feeling that, like his owner, he had a permanent home of his own of which no one could legally deprive him. Moreover the institution of working on obrok tended to efface whatever slavish instincts his other conditions might have engendered. Working on obrok was an arrangement by which a peasant could leave his owner's estate and engage in trade in some far distant town or city, in exchange for an agreed annual payment from his earnings to his owner. As the estates became more populated by the serfs such permission was attainable on easier terms, and increased the number of *mestchaneh*—trading serfs, from whom gradually were evolved the merchant, and the greater part of the present middle class. "Our land is vast and fertile, but there is no order here, do come and rule over us" was the message known as "the calling of the princes", or the invitation said to have been sent some ten centuries ago to the Norwegians to come and govern the Variagues—the ancient Russians, who evidently preferred to be ruled rather than to govern themselves. The incident and the wording of the message, whether legendary or true, are typically characteristic of the Russian of to-day. An individual ambition to rule possesses him no more now than it did then. And that he has never exhibited any bellicose intention to revolt against existing authority is remarkable throughout the political history of the country. No general rising of the people has ever taken place with the object of dethroning the lineal descendant of a Tsar or of subverting that Tsar's authority. The insurrections which have occurred have in all cases been organised and led by false pretenders to the throne, who have impersonated the assassinated heirs-apparent and thus inveigled the people.

We have dealt hitherto chiefly with the characteristics of the masses. There still remains an important, influential, though not extensive middle class which has grown, as we have endeavoured to show above, to

a large extent from the trading serf. Here again as a natural consequence the racial characteristics preserve their true colours. To the middle class belong the industrial and commercial communities. It is not so much his want of enterprise as a peculiar fatalism in his nature which prevents the Russian business man from rising to the qualities required for the development of the great resources of his country. His trust and reliance in the superior force of chance is graphically depicted in the word "*Avoyce*", come what may. If he succeeds in his calling, it is much more by luck than by hard work and a steady, self-relying aim at one goal. He has—and this is a direct inheritance from serfdom—no sense of providing for the morrow and rarely becomes a sufficiently important capitalist to promote the industrial development of his country without having recourse to the financial aid of the foreigner. Hence he becomes an easy prey to the rich, shrewd, enterprising Jew, who invariably monopolises the best contracts which he knows how to manipulate to his own advantage with the aid of the venal bureaucracy. One racial link is prominent in connecting all the various characteristics of every grade of Russian life. We may call it self-abnegation, a want of self-reliance, what we will. But it is certainly not the stuff out of which successful revolutions and revolutionists are made. Never less than now could Russia support a revolution. Never more than now has she been in need of an autocracy.

A COMPARISON OF WHEAT PRICES.

WE can all admit that no other Opposition speaker has stated the Free Trade case from the public platform with greater force or earnestness, and on the whole with more scrupulous fairness, than has Mr. Asquith. His speeches represent in an extreme form the methods of the free traders generally in building up an apparently substantial edifice on meagre and unsubstantial foundations. As with the mighty man of old, it is but necessary to lean on "the pillars whereupon the house resteth" to bring the structure tumbling down like a house of cards. By way of illustration we take one of the passages from the reports of his speech at Heywood last Saturday. Quoting from the *Fiscal Blue-book*, Mr. Asquith pointed out that the average price of wheat during the years 1886-1901 in Germany exceeded the average price in this country by 6s. 2½d. per quarter, the average difference in the duty being 7s. 5d. In France, he continued, the average price exceeded the English price by 9s. 11d. per quarter, though the average difference in duty was only 7s. 5½d. He thought that these facts proved that the duty was paid by the consumer and nobody else, and that this would be the case in this country. The argument was thus claimed to have been killed, and might now leave the "fighting ranks for the dissecting table". Had we the opportunity of subjecting Mr. Asquith to the ordeal of cross-examination, a process which he, as a lawyer, would be the last to deprecate, we could easily discover to him substantial reasons for doubting the main conclusions which he has reached.

It might be pointed out, in the first place, that even in a universe full of free trade, the prices of wheat would not be the same everywhere. An examination of the figures published in any number of the *Agricultural Statistics*, issued annually by the Board of Agriculture, would show that the average prices throughout the year differ very considerably in the different markets of England and Wales. In 1903, for example, the average price of British wheat in various markets of England and Wales varied between 24s. 2d. and 28s. 7d., a difference of 18 per cent. on the lower price. Nor is this difference represented by the cost of bringing wheat from an ideally and centrally situated market to the markets at which these respective prices ruled, for in the single county of Devonshire the average prices ranged from 24s. 11d. at Plymouth to 28s. 7d. at Newton Abbot. We do not desire unnecessarily to multiply instances of this kind but suggest to Mr. Asquith and all those who uphold his conclusions that the main cause for the difference in price is one of difference of quality, and that without making certain of the substantial agreement between the articles, it is grossly unfair to com-

pare the prices. How much difference of quality alone may account for a difference in price is well seen by a comparison of the prices on the same day of British and Manitoba wheat. The average price for English wheat last Saturday was 30s. 6d. per imperial quarter; the price of No. 1 N. Manitoba was quoted at 37s. 9d.

Had Mr. Asquith but paused and reflected, he might have been struck with the fact that the French price exceeded the average English price by 1s. 5½d. more than the difference of duty. There must therefore have been many occasions, in recent years, when such difference was 2s. 6d. or 3s. greater than the English price plus the import duty. Yet we do not gather that there have been any large importations of wheat into France, though it is clear that such an enterprise would on the face of it have proved highly profitable. The case is even more striking when the Italian wheat prices are compared with the British.

We do not wish to be misunderstood as representing that quality is the only cause for the difference in price. We admit that when an import duty is levied on goods imported into any country, the average price will, in general, be raised by some part of the duty. The extent of the rise will be determined by the number of the competitors desirous of supplying the market, and the supply available for satisfying its demands. It appears to be forgotten, at any rate it is not convenient to admit it as an element in the argument, that it is part of Mr. Chamberlain's scheme to increase the areas of supply, and to stimulate the production within the Empire to such an extent by granting a substantial preference to the Colonies, that the price will be brought down to a figure possibly even lower than it would or could have been without such preference. The objection to this view has been strongly urged by a writer in the current number of the "Economic Review".* The writer of this article contends that as 80 per cent. of the wheat required in the United Kingdom is imported; and since 80 per cent. of the imported wheat comes from foreign countries, the preference granted on the remaining 20 per cent. will not be sufficient to affect the price, which must rise to the extent of the whole import duty.

This argument omits to take into account the fact that the main object of the preference scheme is to develop the enormous colonial resources. In Manitoba alone Canada has wheat land of excellent quality, capable of yielding sufficient wheat, according to an official United States report, to provide the whole world. The North-West Territories, which are now being opened up at an extremely rapid rate, are likely to prove of even greater importance. These great areas do not exhaust the Canadian resources, as the Canadian do not represent the sole imperial resources. India has, during the last year, proved herself able to supply, to a large extent, British requirements of wheat and corn, and her assistance proved most useful in a year when American wheat exports had become very greatly reduced. Then again the Australian colonies have, in the littoral areas, lands which could be made to grow corn capable of competing in quality and price with other corn in the British markets. All these resources will be stimulated to activity by the differential advantage of a 2s. duty to the colonies. The question of price will be determined entirely by the supplies of wheat all over the world available for export, and if this supply should prove greater than at present it is much more reasonable to suppose that the price would fall instead of rise, in spite of the existence of a 2s. duty on foreign corn.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN ON THE SIDE OF THE ANGELS.

GREEK is "one of those subjects which, whether compulsory or not, cannot be excluded from a complete and liberal education". Who said this? Mr. Chamberlain. When? Where? On Tuesday last at Birmingham. To whom? To the governors of Birmingham University. Then there is hope for the world yet. Here is the man whom the men of the

modern, the commercial, spirit claim as peculiarly their own, declaring on a peculiarly modern occasion that Greek cannot be kept out of a complete and liberal education. Hark! some of you flesh-pot head-masters of to-day! Is Mr. Chamberlain a practical man or not? It is splendid testimony to his courage that he did not leave this unsaid. It is eloquent evidence of greatness that he can believe it at all. Neither tradition nor training taught him this; but genius and experience. Mr. Chamberlain is an angel after all, and it is matter of common knowledge that Rhodes too was on the side of Greek. So we have these two men, the greatest Englishmen of action and the keenest Imperialists of our time, both on the side of the angels.

Now the University of Birmingham is at bottom frankly and avowedly a "business proposition", it exists for "the teaching of the highest forms of applied science in the districts and neighbourhoods in which it could be of most advantage to the population". In other words Birmingham has a University because it wants engineers and chemists, metallurgists and good men of business, and it has been led to believe that teaching of a University order is really the cheapest way, if not the only one, of getting them. And teaching of a University standard is needed because experience has shown that you cannot box up the intelligence into water-tight compartments; applied science cannot be dissociated from pure science to any good purpose; the desire for knowledge is contagious and extends even to the study of Greek. Thus thanks to the insatiable curiosity of the human mind the institution whose fundamental aim is to be a glorified technical school finds itself a University with a flourishing Arts faculty. Setting out only to purvey instruction, it becomes a fountain of knowledge. But from the "paying" basis of the University it must allow the utmost "lernfreiheit" to its students, they must be supplied with what they want rather than what other people think they ought to have, even the avenues to the degree must be as various and as widely open as possible, the degree becoming a certificate that its holder has worked to some effect at his chosen subject.* We approach in fact at one remove the idea of those mediæval Universities, where the students elected, paid, and when need be dismissed their professors.

Such is the spirit of the new Universities, they descend in the main from the great German University movement a century ago, they have their counterparts in every Continental country and in America, they produce learned men, they are most effective engines of research, and as far as they get hold of the right material they turn out educated men. But Oxford and Cambridge hold by another and perhaps an older tradition; the ideal of "a complete and liberal education" for all their graduates has been the great possession of Oxford and Cambridge. It has been the secret of their reluctance to follow many would-be reformers, just as it is the real motive power on the side of compulsory Greek at the present day. If only this were realised by both parties in the controversy, what a lot of futile argument we might have been spared; Greek not because it pays the science man to know the derivations of the names of his instruments, Greek not because its intellectual gymnastic is such that boys from the classical side always in after life beat boys from the modern side, but Greek because it is an essential element in the education of the whole man. And if we are asked why Greek should have this distinction above any other language ancient or modern, we simply point to the historical fact that since the great awakening of the human mind which was coincident with, if not largely caused by, the rediscovery of Greek in the Western world, Greek thought and Greek art have been the prime intellectual forces in our civilisation. While it would be flying in the face of experience to maintain either that a man without a knowledge of Greek cannot be educated or that such knowledge by itself will make a man educated, the main proposition remains that Greek is an essential part not only of the complete education but of the more limited ideal which is realisable with the time and intelligence normally available.

Certain consequences however follow from this ideal

* "Present Position of the Wheat Supply." By Owen Fleming ("Economic Review", January 1905).

of the complete education. In the first place the Universities in question must secure real Greek for their passmen, not the make-shift which now figures in Smalls and the Little Go. The Universities at present delegate the compulsory education in Greek to the schools, and after a poor test to save appearances at entry practically tell the science or mathematical man to get on with his own subject. Thus the Universities show no working faith in their profession of the necessity of Greek to the education of their graduates. What is wanted is not a pass examination to be crammed before entry but a provision which will ensure that the non-classical men do some considerable classical reading for a year or more after they come up. Surely Oxford and Cambridge of all places can find some method of getting work out of their men other than putting them through an examination. The next consequence flowing from our ideal education of the whole man is compulsory science. Science has done for this age what Greek did for the Renaissance, and every argument that can be advanced for Greek as a necessary item in a liberal education applies also to science. If a tincture of polite letters is valuable to the future man of science, what would not be the value of a little training in scientific method to the future statesman? So the necessary minimum for the liberal education gets raised to four subjects—Greek and Latin, Mathematics and Science. English and modern languages may safely be left to the intellectual curiosity of the would-be graduate. Such is the ideal; the only question is whether we can live up to it, but from experience we are confident that the kind of boy who will be worthy of an honour degree at Oxford or Cambridge can comfortably reach the necessary standard in his ordinary school course. As to the man who comes up late from one of the provincial Universities, the man who is so much irked now by compulsory Greek, were his Greek a rational study within the University and not a "bullfinch" at entrance he would be one of the first to proclaim its value. Of course it is arguable that the ideal of liberal education is a hopeless one, because you cannot ensure the educated man whatever you compel him to learn, but those who want to turn Oxford and Cambridge into schools for specialists forget that the newer Universities compete there on level or even better terms. After all Oxford and Cambridge, like Birmingham, have to "pay", and they have paid in the past by turning out not merely learned men, but statesmen and administrators, writers and men of the world, by the fruits, in fact, of an education that has been liberal if not complete.

THE CITY.

THE tone of the Stock markets has been distinctly better all round during the past week. The "mutiny" as the President of the Argentine Republic has termed the rising was quickly suppressed and current news and rumours have assisted the optimism which is usually latent among the members of the Stock Exchange. Beyond all doubt the Continental bourses have bought on balance and the steady flow of investment in the finer securities has continued. If the colonies and municipalities can stay their hand it is highly probable that a reconstitution of the basis of yield will take place; insurance companies and similar institutions have been so long accustomed to a return of 4 per cent. that they are very unwilling to lower their standard, but it is becoming exceedingly difficult to supply investments at this rate of interest. The issue of £260,000 4 per cent. stock redeemable in 1954 on behalf of the city of Bloemfontein was a great success. The new Chinese Imperial Government 5 per cent. Gold Loan of 1905 for £1,000,000 is offered at 97 per cent. We understand that Belfast will shortly issue a 3½ per cent. loan for £1,000,000 at 98 and there can be no doubt that it will meet with success, constituting as it does an investment of the first grade. To those investors who are on the look out for a thoroughly safe investment the 3½ per cent. bonds of the Agricultural Bank of Egypt are worthy of attention. The present price is

about 94½, at which the yield is £3 13s. per cent., and as the interest and principal is guaranteed by the Egyptian Government the security is excellent; apart from this, however, the Bank is doing well and must participate in the increasing prosperity of Egypt.

The Home Railway market has been more confident and quotations have improved, the most active stock having been South Eastern Deferred. The trials which have been made with the New Century engine on the North British Railway are stated to have been extremely satisfactory, and it is believed that a contract has been signed between the railway company and the New Century Company for the use of the patent which is claimed to effect a saving of 25 per cent. in fuel. The shares of the latter company have had a sharp jump and the Foreign Patents shares—an offshoot—have also been in request; if the advantages attributed to the invention are further substantiated both shares offer a fair speculative investment—incidentally also the Nimrod Company, which has been in low water, should materially benefit, as it has a large holding of Foreign Patents Century shares.

The American railroad section has remained strong, the rise of 4 points in Baltimore and Ohio shares having been the chief item of interest. There is a concurrence of opinion that the rise is by no means finished, and although it often happens that quotations fall off when an opinion is so generally held, there is undoubted evidence that operators in New York have bought call options for April and May, showing practical confidence in the future of high prices.

The South African mining market has participated in the better feeling, and although there has not been much buying apparent on English account the Continent has purchased, and the "bears" have also protected themselves to a certain extent. At the time of writing the exact statement of the gold output for January is not officially known, but it is reported to show an increase of 12,000 ounces—a very gratifying advance. Progress of this nature must of course be reflected in the dividend-paying mines, and with a lull in new promotions of a few months the natural appreciation in values would spread throughout the list. Able as the South African magnate is in many respects he does appear lamentably deficient in shrewdness in gauging the ultimate effect of the stream of new issues on the market generally; to snatch an easy and quick profit in promotion he endangers the whole fabric, for the confidence of the public is, after all, the real basis of the market structure.

INSURANCE.

NATIONAL PROVIDENT—NEW YORK LIFE.

QUANTITY is the perpetual cry of the New York Life, as it is of other American insurance companies, and quality of the best British companies, such for instance as the National Provident whose annual report has just been published. It is instructive to compare the results to policy-holders of these two different ideals.

The premiums received by the New York Life on new policies issued last year are more than six times as large as the total premium income of the National Provident, and the annual increase in the funds of the New York Life is a much larger sum than the total assets of the National Provident; yet the latter is one of the great British companies, possessing funds of more than £6,000,000. But of what use is all this bigness to the policy-holders of the American office? Its only effect is to make the bonuses smaller, and the policies relatively bad investments.

The New York Life has for its only source of surplus the difference between the rate assumed in valuing the liabilities and the rate of interest actually earned upon the funds. In fact the annual profits do not amount to quite so much as this source of surplus would yield. The average rate assumed in valuing the liabilities is 3½ per cent., and last year the funds yielded interest at the rate of £4 4s. per cent., showing a contribution to surplus at the rate of 14s. per cent. per annum of the funds. The report of the Company says nothing about the surplus earned during the year, but the

Valuation Returns for 1903 show that the profits amounted to less than 10s. per cent. of the funds.

The National Provident values its liabilities at £3 per cent. and earns interest on its funds at the rate of £3 17s. 6d. per cent., thus contributing a larger proportion to surplus than the New York Life. The chief contrast in the bonus-earning powers of the two companies is however to be found in the difference between the expenditure provided for and the expenditure actually incurred. The National Provident sets aside 24 per cent. of its premium income for future expenses and profits, and as its actual expenditure is only 10½ per cent. of the premiums there is a margin of 13½ per cent. of the premiums available for bonuses. The New York Life, on the other hand, spends every year the full amount reserved for expenses and perhaps a little more. If it were managed as economically as the National Provident its annual profits would be enormous. Its premium income is about £16,000,000, and if, instead of spending nearly 25 per cent. of its premiums on expenses as it did last year its expenditure was limited to 11 per cent. as incurred by the National Provident, its profits would be about £2,200,000 a year greater than they are. Instead of being a paltry £300,000, the amount of the declared profits in 1903, they would be something like 2½ millions, or about eight times as great as they are. Out of every £100 paid in premiums to the New York Life the sum of at least £13 is wasted simply because of the senseless craving of the management for superfluous, injurious bigness. In face of such facts as these it is obviously detrimental to a policy-holder to select an extravagant office like the New York Life with "quantity" for its maxim, and with its business conducted principally with the idea of gratifying the ambition of the managers for bigness, instead of choosing an economical British company with "quality" for its maxim and the welfare of its existing policy-holders as its sole aim. We therefore remain wholly unimpressed by the loud announcement that the assurances in force in the New York Life amount to nearly £400,000,000, while the assurances in force in the whole of the ordinary British offices put together are only £700,000,000.

THE DYING TONGUE OF GREAT ELIZABETH.

MUCH as the Shakespearian orgies at His Majesty's Theatre have interested and amused me from the first, it was not until I witnessed "Much Ado" the other night that it struck me that Mr. Tree's detachment from Shakespear was a phenomenon less personal and more national—or, at least, more metropolitan—than I had supposed. That detachment is certainly very complete. We all know the actor-managers to whom Shakespear is an august convention, conferring intellectual eminence, scholarship, and professional primacy on his exponents; but however honorary the degree, however imaginary the scholarship, however precarious the primacy, there has always been between the author and actor a genuine bond of stage method, of rhetoric, of insistence on exceptionally concentrated personal force and skill in execution, of hammering the play in by ceaseless point-making. Far be it from me to pretend that these things were achieved always, or even often; but they were aimed at; and the result was a performance which, on its technical side, had at least some relation to Shakespear, even when it was only the relation of failure.

But even that bond is now broken. Among the managers who are imaginative and capable enough to count seriously, Mr. Tree is the first within my experience for whom Shakespear does not exist at all. Confronted with a Shakespearian play, he stares into a ghastly vacuum, yet stares untrifled, undisturbed by any suspicion that his eyesight is failing, quite prepared to find the thing simply an ancient, dusty, mouldy, empty house which it is his business to furnish, decorate, and housewarm with an amusing entertainment. And it is astonishing how well he does it. Totally insensible to Shakespear's qualities, he puts his own qualities into the work. When he makes one of Shakespear's points—which he does extremely seldom—it is only because at that particular moment Shake-

spear's wit happens to coincide with his own: for instance, in "Much Ado" he makes a point of the famous "Love me! Why, it must be requited"; but you can see by his colloquial alteration of the line to "Love me! Oh! This must be requited", that he did not feel the point in the original more rhetorical version, and that it was his own dramatic instinct that prompted him to re-invent it and introduce it as a pure interpolation, ingeniously using as much of the bard's language as could be made to convey anything to himself or the audience. He is always papering the naked wall, helping the lame dog over the stile, putting a gorgeous livery on the man in possession, always, like Nature, abhorring a vacuum, and filling it with the treasures of his own ingenuity and imagination and fun, and then generously giving our Shakespear the credit. Think back a little on his achievements in Shakespear's characters. Can you not remember some telling stroke in all of them. But it is never one of Shakespear's strokes. No doubt his Falstaff, being a sin against nature, had all the atrocity peculiar to such sins: still, one remembers, as an audacious but quite credible character-quip, the knight who was impecunious enough to take fifteen pence from Pistol as his share of the price of the stolen fan, yet riding up to his pothouse on a valuable white nag. Shakespear never thought of that. You remember Caliban taking a huge bite out of a raw gurnet, catching flies to prevent them teasing his god Stephano, and lying on a promontory with heaven knows what melancholy at his heart, watching the ship that is taking away Prospero and Prospero's daughter for ever into the unknown. You remember Richard the Second, though moved only to futile sarcasm by Bolingbroke's mastery of him, turning away with a stifled sob when his dog deserts him and licks Bolingbroke's hand. You remember, too, how Richard munches sweetmeats whilst his peers are coming to blows in his presence, and how, after his disgrace in Westminster Hall, instead of making the conventional pathetic exit, he clasps his hands affectedly behind him, cocks his chin pettishly in the air, and struts out, not as an accomplished actor would go out, but—he convinces you—as Richard himself probably did go out on that occasion. And you will remember his Benedick up a tree, shying oranges at the three conspirators, and finally shaking the whole crop down on them when they accuse him of "a contemptible spirit," quite content to exploit the phrase in its modern sense, though Shakespear means, not contemptible, but contemptuous.

Now some of these indelible remembrances are of strokes of genius, and some are of inconsiderate tomfooleries (for you really should not, like Crummles's comic countryman, catch flies when another actor is trying to hold the audience); but they are all pure original Tree and not Shakespear. They could only have occurred to one whose mind was completely free from all pre-occupation with Shakespear. And that is only possible to one who can see nothing in Shakespear except what must be obvious to any person of normal senses.

Now I am quite aware that I here seem to be condemning Mr. Tree in the most severe manner. Mr. Churton Collins, Mr. Sidney Lee, Mr. Swinburne will say that if all this be true, then Mr. Tree is not papering a blank wall but barbarously whitewashing a fresco, not helping a lame dog over a stile, but breaking the leg of a lion. And they would be partly right. It cannot be denied that Mr. Tree takes unheard-of pains to manufacture "business" to help out scenes that positively bristle with missed Shakespearian points. His occasional crimes against literature are positively blasphemous. Let me give one example from "Much Ado." In the masked ball scene, when the Prince flits across the stage with Hero, the little scrap of their conversation that reaches us is exquisitely caught up at the end into a little trill of verse.

PRINCE: My visor is Philemon's roof:

Within the house is Jove.

HERO: Why then your visor should be thatched.

PRINCE: Speak low if you speak love.

When, at His Majesty's, the first two lines were omitted, and "Speak low if you speak love" tacked suddenly on to "God defend, the lute should be like the

case", I staggered to my seat as if a dart had been struck through my liver. Had I not been under a strong and recent personal obligation to Mr. Tree for a service rendered to me in the production of a play of my own, I declare I should have risen and addressed the audience, and moved a resolution. Only once before in my life have I had such a shock. That was at Covent Garden one night at the end of "Don Giovanni", when the statue, without a word of warning, lit on a note so utterly foreign to the key, that I sprang to my feet in the midst of the stalls and uttered a most fearful imprecation, as remote from the ordinary channel of my conversation as the statue's error was from the score of Mozart.

Now it is clear that Mr. Tree's valuation of Shakespeare's graces of language must be widely different from my own, or he would not make cuts of this kind, or modernise and interpolate as he does so freely throughout the play. And this brings me to the main object of my criticism, which is to defend Mr. Tree by calling attention to a phenomenon which is being acted on in practice before we have learnt to allow for it.

Some time ago I received a copy of a book called the "Twentieth Century Bible." It was a copy of the New Testament translated into such modern English as we find in the leading article of a respectable newspaper. Nobody who remembers the outcry that arose against our official revised version of the Scriptures—the very corrections of the errors of the authorised version being denounced as sacrilegious, and as exposing their makers to the curse in the last chapter of Revelation—can doubt that this Twentieth Century version would never have been undertaken by a body of devout Protestant believers (in America, too, of all countries) under any pressure short of daily experience of the fact that the authorised version is no longer intelligible to the common people: in short, that Jacobean English is a dead language. And I confess, not without an afterblush of amazement and humiliation, that I myself, who have never lost touch with the Jacobean language, who, as an Irishman, have for my mother tongue an English two centuries earlier than twentieth century cockney; who have all my life had my head full of the Bible and Shakespeare, did nevertheless find that as I read this new vernacular Testament (quite with the proper amused contempt at first for its Philistine journalese) I gathered at once from it numbers of important points that I had never got from the authorised version, and saw others in quite a new and highly suggestive light. And I said, "If this is the case with me, who found George Eliot's English thirty years ago a jargon of awkward neologisms, how must it be with cockneys who might be my sons and daughters, and to whom George Eliot is now quainter and more old-fashioned than ever Fielding has been to me?"

Now let us return to "Much Ado."

The performance went on in the usual manner up to the point at which Shakespeare rescues the play from collapse through the exhaustion of its wretched plot, and through the impossibility of keeping up the pretence that Beatrice and Benedick are delightfully witty and genuine creatures, by falling back on his old joke of a male Malaprop, and making Dogberry the saviour of the play. Before Mr. Louis Calvert was half through Dogberry's charge to the watch, I felt that something had begun which was quite on a new plane. Mr. Calvert, as I have some special reason to know, is an extraordinarily good actor; but after all, there were other actors in the cast. If you come to that, Mr. Tree can act, and sometimes, when the work in hand suits his genius, act very well indeed. No: the difference was not the difference between good and ordinary acting: it was a difference in kind. And it flashed on me presently that the secret was that the language of Shakespeare was a live language to Mr. Calvert, whereas to Mr. Tree and the rest it was more or less a dead one. Allowing as much as possible for the difference between a steady professional skill that never blurs a syllable nor drops the end of a line into the orchestra, and a whimsical carelessness that lets even such a line as "Come! I will have thee; but by this light I take thee for pity" fall flat because the word "pity" does not reach even the third row of the

stalls, much less the gaping bardolatrous pit, still, no mere technical accomplishment on Mr. Calvert's part could have dug the huge gulf that separated his utterance from that of the others. It is not perfect articulation, but perfect intelligence, that finds the nail in every phrase and hits it on the head unerringly. Now there is nothing to tax anybody's intelligence in "Much Ado." Like all Shakespeare's comedies it contains nothing beyond the capacity of a child except the indecencies which constitute the staple of its badinage. Mr. Tree is as capable of understanding it as Mr. Calvert, if only he knew the language of the seventeenth century as Mr. Calvert does. But he only knows it as a scholar knows Coptic: he cannot really speak it. When he can neither frankly modernise it, as in his "Oh! This must be requited", nor confine his acting to those phrases which still survive in our speech, he is beaten by it. To Mr. Calvert it is as natural as his native speech: he makes it clear, expressive, and vivid without the least pre-occupation; whereas to Mr. Tree, and indeed to all the rest, more or less, it is a continual embarrassment.

Now we are in a position to do Mr. Tree justice. Here he is, confronted with a play in a dead language. What the language is to him, it is, a fortiori, to a public much inferior to him in culture. One has only to open a spare ear to hear the occupants of the stalls, presumably not the least literate section of the audience, giggling at such phrases as "Fair and softly" and the like, evidently taking them to be Dogberryisms, as if John Gilpin himself was too archaic for them. What can the manager do, playing to please such an audience at the huge hazards that a vast theatre involves, but treat Shakespeare's language as a drawback only feebly counterbalanced by its reputation? The consequences are startling to those who have not analytic faculty enough to understand how much of Shakespeare's magic is created by the beauty and fancy of his word-music. Paraphrase the dialogue of "Much Ado" in mere utilitarian prose, and you will find speech after speech awkward, superfluous, dragged in by the ears, and consequently irritating and tedious, fatal to the crispness of the action. The characters lose their glamour: one sees that the creator of the merry lady with her barmaidenly repartees and the facetious bachelor with his boarding house funny man's table talk, was no Oscar Wilde. The three gallant companions in arms no longer bear thinking of in comparison with Athos, Aramis, and d'Artagnan. Dogberry is seen to be a cheap performance in comparison with the best comic figures of Cervantes, Scott and Dickens. The subtler strokes of character are wasted because they could be made amusing and intelligible only by the method of comedy; and Shakespeare, great at "drama," farce and fairy extravaganza, had no idea of comedy. For instance, Claudio is a well-observed and consistent character; childishly selfish, cruel, and affectionate; without judgment or reflection; always rushing at a word of suggestion from one extreme of infatuation and credulity to the other. Labiche would have made him irresistibly amusing and interestingly instructive by the modern comedic method. Shakespeare, for want of comedic faculty, gets no dramatic value out of him whatever, and fails to convey to the audience anything except a disagreeable impression of a conventional hero who is driven by the mere letter of the plot into an unconvincing misunderstanding and a dastardly revenge, in the meanness of which his gallant friends grovel as vulgarly as himself. The story is a hopeless one, pleasing only to lovers of the illustrated police papers. It was all very well for Shakespeare to say "It does not matter what the story is, provided I tell it; and it does not matter what the characters say provided I turn the phrase for them". He could make that boast good only to people with an ear for his music and a born habit of thinking in his language. That habit once lost, the garden of Klingsor withers: "Much Ado" becomes what "Don Giovanni" or "Die Zauberflöte" would become if Mozart's music were burnt and the libretto alone preserved.

Mr. Tree has to find substitutes for the lost charm; and he does so with a fertility that would do credit to a professed playwright. "Much Ado" is not only bearable at His Majesty's, it is positively pleasant to the

disillusioned, and, I should think, enchanting to the young. All the lovely things that Shakespear dispensed with are there in bounteous plenty. Fair ladies, Sicilian seascapes, Italian gardens, summer nights and dawns (compressed into five minutes), Renascential splendours, dancing, singing, masquerading, architecture, orchestration tastefully culled from Wagner, Bizet, and German, and endless larks in the way of stage business devised by Mr. Tree, and carried out with much innocent enjoyment, which is fairly infectious on the other side of the footlights. And then, since Shakespear's words are still the basis of the dialogue, there are moments when the bard enjoys his own again; for all the players are not as completely swanproof as Mr. Tree; and sometimes the star dances and silence is *not* the perfectst herald of joy. On the whole, my advice is, go and see it: you will never again have the chance of enjoying such an entertainment.

The company is a strong one. Mr. Henry Neville, as Leonato, is of course hampered at first by the violent make-believe which is necessary to face out the enormous lie that Beatrice and Benedick are providing (I am going to quote the program—a shameless document), “a brilliant encounter of wits by which the audience is perpetually confronted but never wearied.” He has also to pretend that the trick on Benedick is credible in proportion to its over-acting. So far Mr. Neville is rather the benevolently mellow veteran, helping the play and the young people, than the deeply stirred actor; but in the church scene he will be remembered longer than most of our Leonatos. Mr. Sydney Brough, agreeably to Mr. Tree's historical conception of Don Pedro as a Spanish prince, makes up as Philip II., but repudiates the character of that gloomy monarch by a levity of deportment which verges on the comic relief to which Mr. Brough's early years were dedicated. His luckless kinsman, Mr. Lionel Brough, has been given the part of Verges after Mr. Tree had first erased Verges from the book of life. The really exasperating stupidity of cutting out the scene of the visit of Dogberry and Verges to Leonato has been made traditional on the London stage ever since Sir Henry Irving (who will have an extremely unpleasant quarter of an hour if he is unlucky enough to come across the Bard in the heavenly Pantheon) ingeniously discovered that means of reducing Dogberry to a minor part. In the omitted scene we become acquainted with Verges as an intelligent old man enfeebled by age, whose straightforward attempts to explain things are baffled by the lusty pigheadedness of Dogberry. Deprived of that opportunity, poor Mr. Lionel Brough can do nothing but echo Dogberry's words, and pretend to be a greater fool than he. It is infuriating to see a good actor treated in this fashion. How would Mr. Tree like it himself? Mr. Basil Gill cannot make Claudio a man to be thought about sympathetically; but he makes him pleasant and poetic to look at and listen to; and Mr. Haviland, an admirable speaker, is irreproachable as the friar. Mr. Laurence Irving, as Don John, wallows in wickedness as only a very amiable man can, and makes this most costive of villains inappropriately exuberant. It is when his part is over, in the church scene, that he suddenly begins to play silently, thoughtfully, and well.

As to Benedick, I defy anybody not to be amused by him. When he is not amusingly good from Mr. Tree's point of view he is amusingly bad from the classical Shakespearian point of view; and when you add that arboreal personality of which I for one never tire, you get a total result which it would be mere pedantry to cavil at, and which I would not change for the most perfectly classical Benedick the School of Dramatic Art will ever turn out. It is, in its way, colossal.

Miss Miriam Clements, quite unconsciously, perhaps, and all the better for that, is a classic Hero. I have never seen the interrupted wedding played with such perfect discretion. Anybody else would have torn it to pieces. Really a most excellent piece of work. Miss Winifred Emery plays Beatrice. I am afraid I was guilty of the impertinence of being prepared to sympathise with her on account of her late illness; but the first glimpse of her corrected that. I never saw anybody look so well. She was not like a sixteenth

century Italian, nor, thank goodness, a Shakespearian merry lady. She was like an eighteenth century queen. Her acting struck me as capricious and even grudging. Her unbending walk across the choir before the altar in the church scene was almost an anti-Ritualist demonstration. There were moments, notably in the over-hearing scene, when she seemed quite in earnest. There were other moments when she seemed to stand aloof from the play with infinite disparagement, and to be on the point of losing her patience and going home, leaving us to finish our nonsense as best we might without her. Then she would take a sudden fancy to a passage and dash into the play like a bird into a fountain; and a delightful minute would ensue. It was better, far better, than the usual hard-working Beatrice, desperately determined to be “piercingly keen and exquisitely apt” (program again) at all hazards, and saying things that a flower-girl would spare a bus-driver as if they were gems of delicate intuition. In short, she was clever enough to play Lady Disdain instead of playing for sentimental sympathy; and the effect was keenly good and original. And, happier than Verges, she had the carduus benedictus scene restored, to the great benefit of the play.

The scenery—for once, we have Italian scenery adequately lighted—is a vital organ, the only failure being the commonplace church, which will not bear comparison with Mr. Gordon Craig's suggestion of a lofty nave. On the whole, a very bad play, but a very enjoyable entertainment. G. B. S.

THE STATUS OF GHOSTS.

FORMERLY ghosts were accepted at what may be called their face-value. They appeared at the “occult” hour of midnight, and disappeared at what is to many living persons still the dreadful crowing of the cock in the morning. Another occult phenomenon, for nobody can explain it. In those simple days ghosts were not inexplicable because no one imagined there was anything to explain. After a time, when everybody who was anybody had ceased to believe in them, it began to be a felt want to explain and account for them. Hence the founding of that very interesting, peculiar, and admirable organisation the Society for Psychical Research. It is a ghost-lore society, if we use the term ghost as taken to include all the group of congruous mysteries which cluster round the idea of the ghost and have the distinction of being classed together by the orthodox scientific man as not science. Sir Oliver Lodge has described the members of the society, of which he himself is one of the most distinguished, as being regarded with contempt mixed with surprise. But that is perhaps rather true of the past than the present; and a change in opinion was in fact noticed by Professor Richet, the new president of the society, in his inaugural address* the other evening. Many of us who are not members of the society represent, as does the society itself, a middle term between the hostility, of the man of physical science and the intellectual indifference of the practical materialist, the uncultured man, who prides himself on his common sense because he sees no difficulties and therefore needs no explanations. We do not want everything ignored which has not something to do with radium, or electric lighting, or appendicitis, or the consumption bacillus. We have heard of such phenomena as rappings on tables without physical contact, of levitations, of inexplicable premonitions and lucidities of the mind which plainly appear out of the normal, of apparitions, the more knowing term for ghosts, of spirit photographs, of apports—of which it may be desirable to state that matter appears to pass through matter, a possibility that radium suggests—of planchette, of hypnotism, of Mrs. Piper, and of many other abnormal persons and things quite as curious. If these things are facts they are interesting, they may be important, and if they are not, they are at any rate very puzzling; and we should be glad to know “how it is done”. Why should not a number of English people who can listen to an address in French for an hour and

* “Presidential Address” by Professor Charles Richet, Professor of Physiology of the Paris Faculty of Medicine, to the members and associates of the Society for Psychical Research.

a half without apparent weariness, employ some of their remarkable patience in elucidating these mysteries? They have done so, as is well known; and what was to be expected has happened. They have arrived at the conclusion which we others of the middle term have arrived at without corporate action. First of all they are not very certain about the alleged facts. From the days of Simon Magus downwards, and before, the magician has hardly ever known himself how far he was the possessor of an unexplained extraordinary power, and how far he deceived himself and others. Much less have other people been able to demarcate the two provinces. Nor has the Psychical Society. You may explode some ghost stories, but you cannot, with every exercise of ingenuity, explode them all. You may explode impostors and yet be conscious that you have not got to the heart of the mystery they have been exploiting. You end rather by disbelieving in the magician than in the magic. When our ancestors ceased burning witches it was not because they ceased to believe in witchcraft, the witch of Endor was too much for them, but because they got rather ashamed of burning the wrong persons.

In such matters as the seeing of ghosts, the fulfilment of dreams, or premonitions of death, or in cases of clairvoyance, more delicacy of treatment is required than in such a process for example as unmasking fraud or deception in a court of law. There is that unconscious knowledge and memory of facts which is never effaced from the organism, though we may think we have never known or have completely forgotten them. This unrevealed personality lying beneath the strata of race and individual experience, the hidden basis of our daily and superficial activities, may with our complete unconsciousness occasion self-deception and lead us to deceive others without intention. This is a notion which has been arrived at in the ordinary course of physiological and psychological inquiries of recent years; and it is a weapon with which the psychical inquirer arms himself. And what is the conclusion of these long-continued and patient inquiries in England, France, and elsewhere made by those who have investigated the whole body of so-called psychical manifestations? Assuming that they must be the effects of causes which are not those of any known physical forces, how far have they been proved to be actual occurrences in the opinion of those who have applied whatever tests of possible experiment or inquiry a philosophical or scientific scepticism might suggest? In Dr. Richet's opinion there are indeed but few of what he prefers to call metapsychical phenomena on which all doubt has been triumphantly dissipated, and there are perhaps but two or three elementary ones which can claim to be definitely established; as, for example, raps without contact, or veridical hallucinations. Thus the status of the ghost and his entourage is very ill defined and can scarcely be considered as free from doubt.

But turning from the question of fact, of the amount of evidence there is of psychical happenings, and admitting there is some, what is the theory or explanation of them? What are the unknown forces presumed to act upon matter and human intelligence? There is spiritism, or spiritualism, as it is mostly but unsuitably called, which has become a religious cult in the hands of those who believe that the causes are to be found in the actions of spirits extra-human or of the dead. So many emotions and human cravings for communion with the departed, for corroboration of the belief in human survival after death, cluster round this explanation that it is bound to be regarded at least with suspicion. The only experimental proof must be something that comes through the senses. The spirit must be made visible or handled or undoubtedly heard, not merely inferred, before spiritism can be admitted to be a valid theory. In the opinion of those of whom Dr. Richet is representative these conditions have not been fulfilled; and spiritism is a faith, not a science; a faith whose substance is things hoped for, and whose evidence is things not seen. An interesting test case has lately been put and an account of it given in a recent number of the *Journal of the Psychical Society*. The late Frederick Myers arranged with Sir Oliver Lodge that if possible he should communicate after death in some manner with a living person, and convey certain informa-

tion as to the contents of an envelope which had been entrusted to Sir Oliver Lodge and deposited by him in secure custody. A lady professed that she was in communication with the spirit of Myers through automatic writing, and that she had received information as to the contents of the envelope. With all due precautions and formalities the envelope was opened; but the lady was found to have added only one more instance to the list of persons who have been self-deceived in these matters. The experiment neither proved nor disproved anything but this; and otherwise the result is negative. Again there is the supposition or guess, for it cannot be tested by experiment, that the explanation is to be found in the human organism itself. It has the power, it is said, of acting at a distance without contact, of discharging an effluvium or double, and of impressing others through sight or sound; when we have apparitions, premonitions of deaths and the like, of which there are many accounts. As facts such occurrences are admitted by those who do not accept the theory or guess; and yet it seems very unconvincing that they should say, as they do, that pure chance or coincidence may explain these things; and that the fact is a mere subjective phenomenon in the recipient of the experiences. There is no need moreover to drag in the "long arm of coincidence" by way of objection to an explanation for which there is nothing in the shape of proof. What remains for the prudent investigator in the shape of theory? Nothing but a theory of absolute nescience for the present, mitigated by the hope that when new facts have been discovered some theory will emerge which will knit together the inexplicable phenomena, as has happened in the history of all knowledge that can now claim to be regarded as science. Yet it is remarkable and laudable that in these materialist days there should be people who have faith in the possibilities of a science at present so surrounded with uncertainties, while its discoveries in any case would have no pecuniary value.

OTIA.

OTIA is the title chosen for the volume* that offers a selection of Armine Thomas Kent's prose and verse to the public: a pretty title,—at least if pronounced properly, and not o-shier as it will be at the universities,—but it raises a question; these being Kent's otia what were his negotia? He surely might have boasted *numquam se minus otiosum esse quam cum otiosus*: for this is his work, and as his serious work it must be judged.

A man of rare parts, but wayward and indolent, or, to put it in one word, self-indulgent; that is how I find him, whether in his own writing or in the friendly memoir that preludes it. Imagine him in the Platonic predicament of antenatal existence, having to choose for himself his future lot upon earth, and no man would seem to have chosen more wisely. But there lay amidst the attractive bundle, wrapped up with the beauty, intellectual faculty, love of life, and enjoyable easy fortune, one perverse quality, that wrecked his attainment. It lay in the bundle with the rest, and he never threw it out: whether he might have done so is not for man to say.

Nor would it be for me, engaged in criticising his literary production, to advert to it, were it not needed to solve the problem that faces one on every page; how it was that so sympathetic and brilliant a critic should have stayed just where he did,—why a poet so gifted as he shows himself to be, should not have done more in his art.

There are two longer essays in the book, the first of these, concerning Della Crusca and Anna Matilda, gives the history of a once fashionable school of poetry, now discredited and forgotten. Kent took up the subject, he tells us, to amuse, and very amusing he makes it. Everything is well handled, and the quotations are so cleverly chosen that one longs for more: but at the end he shifts his attitude to profess that all this bad poetry is, to a student of literature, as worthy of examination as the best, just as to the naturalist "the tares are as

* "Otia: Poems, Essays and Reviews." By Armine Thomas Kent. Edited by Harold Hodge, with a Memoir by Arthur A. Baumann. London: Lane. 1905. 5s. net.

interesting as the wheat". This crude reflection is at once atoned for by a remark of original insight, suggesting that it is possible that the luxuriance of Keats had one of its actual springs in this boshy extravagance. One must regret that, having acquainted himself with all this queer rubbish, he did not make use of his hard-won knowledge to follow up the clue.

The second long article is on Leigh Hunt: his aim being to convince the world that Hunt's poetry is undeservedly neglected. But his first two main quotations, the Nile sonnet and the passage from "Rimini" are ill selected, and almost ruin his cause: later on however he recovers his lost ground and establishes his position pretty firmly; some of the examples from Hunt being of surprising excellence. Among them is this line descriptive of a thunder-cloud,

"Sloping its dusky ladders of thick rain".

The verse, thus isolated, looks to be a blank-verse in Keats' latest manner; but it is from a suppressed poem in rhyme published in 1818, the year of "Endymion"; and this fact is enough by itself to justify Kent's thesis. The essay shows Hunt's muse to have been very versatile and sometimes quite successful: many readers will be grateful for it.

The shorter papers, which are numerous, are most of them good reading, and for some there can be nothing but praise. In others Kent does not always do justice to his intelligence: for instance in his paper on rhyme, where he amuses himself by showing up its defects, without giving it its best defence, and, having all classical poetry at his back, sums up against it,—concluding (rightly as I think) that the unrhymed lyric would be a better form of art than the rhymed lyric; if we could get it,—he is contented with regretting that we do not get it. He should have gone one step further and explained why it is that we cannot get it, namely that there is no prosody in English of sufficient strictness to afford worthy forms.

It is with the same lack of thoroughness that he persistently inveighs against all grammatical inversions in poetry, never inquiring into the matter sufficiently to perceive the reason of them. Consideration of the very bad example of it in the first line of the eighth stanza of his own "Europa" might have taught him both why inversion must be, and how it should not be.

It is Kent's manifest ability that provokes me to find fault with him for such shortcomings. And yet so far as he chose to go he was scrupulous and conscientious; for, as his friend tells us, he would never write on subjects that did not interest him, nor scribble for money when he had nothing to say. And while the excellence of his prose claims to be judged by the highest standard, much allowance must be made for the original purpose of these short talks. I remarked several of them when they appeared in this REVIEW, and remember admiring them as good examples of the best that can be done in their way. The attitude of mind with which a man ruffles the journals in a club-room is very different from that in which he takes a book down from the shelf at home; and this attitude has to be met; nor, among men that have anything to say worth the saying, are there many who care to guard their meaning very carefully for a listener who is only half attending and is as likely as not to walk off in the middle of a sentence to join a game of cards or billiards. Kent seems to me to have skilfully mastered these conditions, which, I need not confess, are at the present moment mastering me; and if his short papers were so successful in their original purpose, they cannot shape so well in a book. Here also is the excuse for the recurrence in this volume of certain notions, the undue prevalence of which is annoying. Kent's work, besides its smartness, aptness and liveliness, has also the fine qualities of a wide literary consciousness (from which however Chaucer is strangely absent), and of catholic amiability. The assertion of his friend, that he would never listen to a bad word about anyone, is borne out by the kindness of his criticism. His smile is always good-humoured; and as he would join heartily in the laughter of others against himself, so none can have felt wounded by his laughing at them.

As for the poems—which, packed in among the

miscellaneous prose, still suffer the disadvantage from which a volume might have emancipated them—they are various in kind. Had the lovers of Herrick found "An Old-World Welcome" among that poet's works, they would have been justly delighted, and have inserted it in many anthologies. The early poem "Spring-time" in a lighter vein seems to me still better; its less successful lines are easily carried by such dancing spontaneity as

"With gentle rains and westerly vanes,
Buttercup buds and daisy chains".

"Ipsissima" is a bold plea, carefully executed, but the philosophical diction has baffled the attempt to make it enliven a lyrical form. This poem and that at the end of the volume, "Night and Morning"—a momentous riddle, for the solution of which one turns in vain to the memoir—are the only two where the writer has dignified any direct revelation of himself.

His most ambitious, and I think most successful, poem, is the longest, a version in Italian eight-line stanza of Moschus' "Europa": and this was not finally retouched when he died. It is full of such elaborated beauty as one would look for from a pupil of Keats writing in the Elizabethan manner, but it is somewhat disfigured by alliteration. Four-fifths of the items in the volume are either poems or concern poetry, and there are some eighteen chapters on poetic subjects, but in only one of these does Kent mention alliteration, and then it is to deprecate it. It is therefore surprising that he should use it so much: here are four lines from a song—

"When ravelled roses rain their petals
All merry madrigals are mute,
And dust of death and sorrow settles
On love's up-lifted lute."

I wonder what he would have said of this had he met with it in Anna Matilda's poems. The words seem to have destroyed the sense: and "Europa" begins:

"Whereas by this two watches were outworn
To that third noiseless interval of night,
When first is felt afar the struggling dawn. . . ."

It is not always so obnoxious as this, but it is almost always present, and it is an idle elaboration. The poem however will generally be read without suspicion of this peculiarity, and it might well take its place among our translations from the Greek, that so much delight those who cannot read the originals. Stanza VIII. is unintelligible as here printed, and should be "restored" in another edition. It is probable that this and the couplet of Stanza X. are among the unfinished places. In Stanza XV. I suppose Cold should be Gold.

Of the Latin verse there is only enough to show that there must be much more, and to make one wish to see it; for the hexameters look as if the writer might have had something of an individual style, which is the common desideratum in the classical verse of scholars.

There are bad misprints, blots in a scholar's book; but not in my province to notice. But the misquotation of Browning on p. 254 must be mentioned. Finally there can be no doubt that this book justifies Mr. Kent's friends in putting it together. If the public should appreciate it as it deserves, I should hope that more good material may be found for a fuller selection both of prose and verse in a second edition.

ROBERT BRIDGES.

[I am bound in duty to my dead friend to point out that "up-lifted" in the fourth line of the song to which Dr. Bridges objects should have been printed "un-lifted". The emendation is not relevant to the alliterative charge, but it emphatically saves the words from destroying the sense. I am also responsible for the verse being interspersed amongst the prose, as well as for the title, but I do not admit that I am to be blamed. Perhaps I should say that Kent's brother and sister would have preferred the verse to be "packed" in a compartment by itself: the sin of dispersion is on my head alone. But I hold that poetry, and especially slight verse such as most of Kent's, suffers only too often by presentation in solid slabs. You might as well compel a man to take his dinner in solid blocks: six courses of

sweets one evening, six of fish another, six joints another and so on. If this is too gross a figure for a poet, I suggest to Dr. Bridges that keeping verse and prose separate is as though you should insist on flowers and foliage never being mingled in a vase; for poems may, I think, properly be described as flowers of literature. And the title? The "Athenæum" in a most able and sympathetic review was taken aback by the title of "Otia", much as I think Dr. Bridges is. But the essence of Kent's work was that it was leisurely; no editor's prayer ever made him hurry over one word: surely there is the fine Hellenic feeling of leisure in every word in this book. Then for my Latinity, otium is used by Cicero and Pliny expressly in the sense of leisure—time for literature and study; and Ovid refers to his poems as "otia nostra". These three wrote pretty good Latin. And this recalls Kent's Latin pieces. There is a fine set of alcaics by Kent, "Mari Magno", in the Duchess of Sutherland's "Wayfarer's Love", a version of a charming little poem "Comrade and Queen". I fear that another edition cannot contain much that is new; for the harvest of this fastidious mind was necessarily rare. I can purge the book of misprints and my other blunders as an editor; but I could not do much more, I fear.—HAROLD HODGE.]

THE FRENCH IMPRESSIONISTS.

WHEN "Impressionism" became a favourite term of criticism in England it seemed likely that its historical origin would fall out of sight and that it would establish itself in a more general sense, come to mean painting in accordance with broad visual impression as opposed to systems more conventional in outline, modelling, shadow, colour, and use of detail. A strong tendency of nineteenth century art, stimulated by its landscape development, was to paint only from the visible object, to push the rendering of it close to the natural fact, thus revising and extending vision, but limiting the freedom of art. The artistic problem in these stricter conditions was this, How far do there exist within the action of natural vision means for giving pictorial emphasis? For painting that renders the visual impression as affected by the act of attention, with the sharpening and broadening of definition that follows, the subordination of detail to a total impression, of parts of the tone and colour field to the whole, some of us thought Impressionism an apt word. It has proved, I am bound to say, confusing in practice, in spite of all care to distinguish the meanings. At any rate it has been found convenient to confuse the two, and to identify speculation on the general subject with the view that Monet is the greatest of painters. Monet is very far from being that, and I, for one, have never written about him without due, or even grudging reserves. But he represents an extreme development, in our time, of landscape painting, and has been a valuable influence on more balanced artists in our own country.

Messrs. Durand-Ruel's exhibition brings together in London for the first time a large and representative collection of the painters to whom the name "Impressionist" in the narrow historical sense belonged; "luminist" would perhaps have been a more descriptive name. The exhibition might have been better still some years ago when pictures no longer available could have been included; but there is enough to give a fair view in most cases, in some there is even excess. The angry hostility that used to greet the pictures has died away; they are no longer regarded as a conspiracy against other forms of the art; they begin to be judged for what they are, instead of being decried because they are not something else. Before going further, it may be as well to clear two confusions out of the way.

The first concerns Monet. Monet never exhibited with the "Impressionists"; and it was not till after 1870 that he was converted by Monet to out-of-doors luminist painting; till then he had resisted, even making fun of the pleinairists. When he did join them his sense of breadth and command of lovely colour and pigment made him a formidable recruit, and as I pointed out at the time, he bore the palm

for luminosity at the last Paris International Exhibition, his more limpid execution making the others look grey and fretful by comparison. In the present exhibition there are only two characteristic pieces of this period, the studies of a garden, of which No. 88 is the best. The Manet chiefly illustrated is the Manet who took his chief themes from Goya and had begun as a tenebrist. He is almost monochromatic in the "Musicien Ambulant" and retains in the more brilliant and adorable scheme of the "Spanish Dancers" a brown foundation. The delightful "Tuileries", though an out of door subject, was a studio painting. Even with the clear flesh painting of the "Astruc" and the "Eva Gonzalès" the foundation of the harmony is black and ivory. Several masterpieces of this period, like the seated Lady with a Guitar, and the Chanteuse des Rues, have been unluckily dispersed in the last four years, and we do not see him in full force. We should have to add to the portraits the still-lives of the Paris Exhibition, the "Peonies" and "Fish", for examples of his approximation to another scheme of tone, with coloured shadows, during the studio period. The Manet of this period has arrived at his characteristic fairness of flesh, in shadow as well as light, but it is relieved, in big silhouette, upon a dark ground.

A second point is this: the vagueness of writing about the painting of the Impressionist group even among their accredited critics is incredible, and we shall no doubt hear once more that what distinguishes Monet is the application of touches of pure pigment side by side to form a mixture in the eye. I have never seen a picture by Monet painted on that principle; Pissarro did for a time either lead or follow in that experiment; but the "Neo-Impressionist" or Pointillist painting will be looked for in vain in the present exhibition.

And now, stated in general terms, what is the principle of Monet's luminism? It is best appreciated by going back to the earlier landscape of the century, which reached a double climax in the painting of Turner and Constable. Both were devotees of light, both were explorers of the beauties of natural effect. But at a crucial point they tended different ways. Turner, in his earlier painting, was a chiaroscurist: Constable was a chiaroscurist to the end of his days. To the eye that measures the distance between bright light and shadow, black is not black enough to render, in pigment, the opposition of light and dark. For Constable a leading charm of landscape was the flash and glitter of light against dark: his base, therefore, remains black and white. For an eye, on the other hand, attracted by the general brilliance of out-of-doors colour, the darkest shadows reveal themselves as high in pitch and full of colour, and the brightest white on the palette is not white enough for the excess of light beyond. Measured against natural fact the chiaroscurist system can render neither extreme absolutely, but can suggest the opposition relatively. The luminist scheme can render the shadows absolutely, with a sacrifice of the lights. Neither system, obviously, is true to the whole range of natural light; they aim at suggesting different beauties. Turner, the cunning artist, did not cut himself entirely free from the older scheme; he was enamoured, in his later days, of general radiance, and renounced the earlier build of his pictures in black and white; but he reserved enough of dark in concentrated spots, to hint at the opposition, and throw back his space. In the development of French landscape this opposition of chiaroscurist and luminist remained latent till the impressionists appeared. The impact of Constable came first, and was rather an influence towards freshness with the bituminous painters than one in favour of extreme chiaroscuro. Boudin, a charming painter, with his clear notes on a grey foundation, is the step immediately preceding Monet. Then, it seems, came the impact of Turner, the renouncing of black and brown, and the experiment of a stricter luminism.

What was the gain and loss of the system for pictorial art? Let us take a good example of Monet in this collection as a starting-point, his "Snow Effect at Vétheuil" No. 119. On the side of gain, here is a very lovely colour-harmony such as was ruled out of the old convention, because it depends on the opposition of the

blue of snow in shadow under an evening light to the rose of the lighted part. On a basis of brown shadow this cannot be given at all. In this picture, moreover, the difficulty of rendering the opposition of shadow to light when the shadow is approximately true is not acute, because the light is not intense. Nor is Monet's habitual weakness as a composer thrust upon us; there is no struggle with desperate material and the arrangement is agreeable enough. The gain, then, put generally, is a lovely natural harmony in high ethereal tones. The sacrifice, put generally, is of strong opposition of tone, and with that of a great part of the resources of pictorial effect. On this system a certain flatness results, composition must be by colour and its boundaries, tone becomes a weak element in the building. To estimate fairly what the system is capable of in deliberate design we should have to imagine a Monet as much bent on a conclusive composition as he is on studies, on successive notes in a diary of lighting. In Degas, the classically trained draughtsman, ironically composing trivial matter, we should find a designer affected by the impressionist painting. But a better example is Puvis de Chavannes, who applied this system of vision to monumental decoration. His "L'Hiver" at the Hôtel de Ville is a composition founded on the same opposition as Monet's snow-piece.

The balance, then, would seem to be this: on the one side a special province of pale aerial effects, with the range of sentiment that belongs to them; on the other the greater force and variety of chiaroscuro. Monet will hold a place as the intense and narrow snatcher at those effects, repelling us often by an indiscriminate snatch, arresting and delighting by a capture in a happier moment. Pissarro's position, I think, is more precarious. His early work is tender and beautiful, and as the logical developer of a "school" he is interesting, but the logical mind fastened on the defect of the school, and made a merit of painting any slice of a view as it presented itself from a first-floor window. Theory, too, and the excursion into pointillism left him with a monotonous ugly technique.

The least known of the group in London, Renoir, is very fully shown, and to him I must give what remains of my space. The qualities in him that excite the intense admiration of a few are so mixed up with what is helpless and common that it is easy enough to miss them. Ugliness leaks into his painting along with beauty, and is not made a virtue of by critical treatment. Beauty often enough escapes him. The picture of the "Mussel-gatherers", for example, is about as bad as a picture can be. But the woman looking out of an opera box has something that much better makers of pictures do not often get into faces, and the play of light in this against the black dress, and on the seated nude (260) all modelled in blond tones may furnish those who are patient enough with a clue to what fascinates certain painters in Renoir. This real but uncertain gift of his is proved by the fact that after looking at Renoir one finds oneself discovering Renoirs in the flesh and features of the real world and getting from him the suggestion of pictures that he has not painted.

I see that a proposal has been made by Mr. Rutter to buy a picture from this collection for one of our galleries. I wish him all success in the effort. Neither Manet nor Monet is represented at present in our public galleries. The best Manets at the Grafton are either not for sale or very high in price. A Monet seems more possible, unless a wealthy donor steps in.

D. S. MACCOLL.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE RUSSIAN CRISIS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

G.I. The Albany, W.

SIR,—I have just been reading the article in the SATURDAY REVIEW on the Russian crisis, and though my sympathies are entirely with the revolutionary

party there, and though I do not see why a body of citizens trying in the only peaceful way open to them to bring their needs or desires before their sovereign should be therefore called rioters, I think you are probably right in holding that a Chancellor with a mind sympathetic towards reform would be the best thing for the Russian people in their present stage of development. One thing at all events seems certain: we have no chance in this country of benefiting the Russian people by mere denunciation of their oppressors, while we may exasperate the oppressors by such denunciation, with bad results for the people. On general principles there ought to be nothing factitious, nothing fanned and fostered from outside, about a revolution. If it has not enough inherent life and energy to be born spontaneously, it were better not born at all. Nature's own obstetrics, not the surgeon's forceps, should do the work.

Yours sincerely,

WILLIAM WATSON.

THE NORTH SEA INQUIRY.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

31 January, 1905.

SIR,—There is a curious point in Captain Klado's evidence. He says that while his attention was engaged with a torpedo-boat on one side, another vessel said to be of the same description was reported to him on the other side, but on examining it he found it to be a fishing-boat with a sail set, and one funnel, with which they so nearly collided that apparently the course of the "Kniaz Suvaroff" had to be hastily altered to avoid the craft. It would appear strange that they should so nearly collide with a fishing-boat on which was set so conspicuous an object as a dark sail, when another officer was enabled to see a torpedo-boat two miles off.

Presumably, supposing Captain Klado had thought that this vessel was a torpedo-boat, he would have unhesitatingly run over it, as apparently he was in a position to do, and thus disposed of an enemy. Should it be advanced as an excuse for the near approach to this trawler, that it was on account of her showing no lights, this will not explain the long vision of the junior officer who saw the torpedo-boat at two miles, for obviously an attacking torpedo-boat will not draw attention to itself by carrying lights.

I am, Sir,

Yours truly,

R. Y. S.

HETEROGENESIS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

8A Manchester Square, W.

31 January, 1905.

SIR,—Considering the nature of the subject I regard the review of my "Studies in Heterogenesis" which appeared in your columns last week as comparatively fair and temperate. There is one important point, however, in which your reviewer has very seriously misrepresented my views, and what would follow therefrom from a medical point of view.

He says, "If, on the other hand, Dr. Bastian be correct, and the microbes of definite diseases can arise de novo either from harmless organisms or from unorganised matter, then practically all current idea on the modes of dealing with epidemic diseases must be abandoned, and an unhappy world must bow before the malevolent caprices of nature." But the words which I have italicised are absolutely contrary to what I have taught, and to the implications naturally following from my doctrines.

There is an appendix to my book (which I am afraid must have escaped your reviewer's notice) entitled "On the great Importance from the point of view of Medical Science of the Proofs that Bacteria and their Allies are capable of arising de novo", in which whilst accepting most of the facts in relation to the spread of contagious diseases and the origin of epidemics, I

plead against ultra-contagionist view and for the recognition of the importance of striving to ascertain the conditions of origin of such diseases. Thus, after quoting the statement of Prof. Hueppe of Prague in his first "Harben Lecture", recently delivered in this city, in which he said existing evidence favoured the view that the origin of all common infectious diseases was "phylogenetically traceable to putrefactive processes", I concluded with the following words:—"Let us then strive to ascertain the conditions of origin of all contagious affections. The more contagious they are, the more important does the quest become. Let us not blindly think that contagion is the one and only cause, but seek in all doubtful and obscure cases, and by cumulation of evidence, to ascertain what are the invariable and immediately antecedent sets of conditions, or states of system, that may have sufficed to engender this or that contagious disease. Progress, however slow, may in this way ultimately reward our efforts, and we may gradually attain a knowledge that will confer great power in checking the ravages of these pestilential affections—a power to which we shall never attain so long as we pin our faith exclusively to the narrower ultra-contagionist doctrines now so prevalent."

I am, Sir, yours obediently,
H. CHARLTON BASTIAN.

[We are glad to accept Dr. Bastian's assurance that we took an exaggerated view of what Dr. Bastian would regard as the practical outcome of his theory. But however much be allowed for Dr. Bastian's reservations, there must remain a fundamental difference between those who regard the origin of infective organisms as limited to direct descent from previously existing organisms of the same kind, and those who believe that such organisms may arise from harmless matter. The rigorous isolation of the infectious sick, and the complete disinfection of what has been in contact with them, is a difficult, costly and sometimes cruel process, impossible to justify, or, indeed, to carry out, except on the belief that the disease can reach new patients only through the agency of living germs arising from existing cases. ED. S. R.]

THE CAUSES OF DEARER SUGAR.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

12 Cumberland Street, Manchester,

6 February, 1905.

SIR,—Whether the increased prices are due to shortage of crop or results of the Brussels Convention, the fact remains that the large British industry of confectionery is almost a thing of the past. And even assuming that the rise is only temporary, it can hardly be expected we shall see a return of prices to their old level. The advance has, to a certain extent, benefited the British West Indies with their paltry 300,000 tons of sugar, though only in a comparatively small degree. Last year was an exceptionally good one for the staple industry of Demerara, excellent prices having been realised, and it is generally remarked that if any sugar estate has not yielded a profit for 1904 it never will, and had better be closed down. Yet while prices were unusually satisfactory and profits correspondingly so, it remains a question whether the labourers on those plantations have derived the least advantage from the improved condition of things or if they must look for other sources than sugar to ameliorate their financial position. Dependence upon a single industry has been the ruin of country people in British Guiana, but they have still hope of deriving some benefit from the growth of cotton and rice.

It may be doubtful, as you say, whether Mr. Chamberlain cares very much about considerations of material wealth except as they affect the employment and prosperity of the working classes, but here is a case in which protection means advantage to the foreigner into whose hands we have once more played. Cuba, with a production of nearly three times the whole output of all the West Indies, will get the lion's share and the British labourer pay for this prosperity.

It may be good policy but is certainly bad business. England's greatness is based on free trade: it has yet to be seen how our colonies will be made happy and contented by protection. In size, England may be compared with a mosquito and her colonies with an elephant; yet the mother country contrives, somehow, to make the big animal as happy as possible. On the other hand, the United States are the elephant and her colonies the mosquito, and that huge quadruped cannot manage to make the little insect prosperous, though the wants of the latter are so small. If one doubts this, let him go over to Porto Rico and spend a week waiting for a steamer, smoking cigarettes and chatting with all sorts and conditions of men: he will then surely find prosperity in the pockets of some Yankee millionaires, and the most abject poverty amongst the working classes.

Yours faithfully,
A. C. FLETCHER.

[We do not share Mr. Fletcher's extremely pessimistic view that the confectionery industry of this country is now "a thing of the past". If that argument were well founded, it must follow that its prosperity was founded on the continuance of a grant by the continental governments to the manufacturing confectioners of this country. It is impossible to conceive of a great industry built on a more rotten and unsound foundation, and the inevitable crash must have come about sooner or later, when the true economics of the situation became clear to those governments. Nor must it be forgotten that the confectioner's gain was obtained partly at the expense of the refining industry, and that of the cane-sugar growers. From a national point of view the loss of the sweet-making trades must be measured against the gain to these other sections of the national and imperial bodies. We regret that Mr. Fletcher, as also was the case with Mr. Leonard last week, should have introduced this side-issue. The object of our article was to show that the present price of sugar could be entirely accounted for by the ordinary operations of supply and demand. The increased sowings in 1901-2 were due to the prospective abolition of the bounties; the supply exceeded the demand by from 1,000,000 to 2,000,000 tons in each of the next three seasons; this caused such a fall in price as to bring about a decrease in sowings; and finally the shortage coming on top of the decreased sowings made the estimated supply for the present sugar campaign less than sufficient to meet the current demand. If any other argument were needed to disprove the allegation that the present rise is not due to the convention it is that orders can be booked, even now, for delivery in October-December at about 11s. 6d. per cwt. f.o.b. Hamburg.

We regret, as every right-minded person must, the distress and difficulties which at present face these industries. We do suggest, however, that the short time and unemployment have been forced on the manufacturers by the shortage of raw material and not by the high price. The cotton industry went through a similar experience which, owing fortunately to its better organisation, it was able to meet, with a minimum of discomfort to the average cotton operative, by an organised short time. Both cases fully illustrate the danger of depending on a restricted area of supply. In both cases one of the effects has been to make us cast about for widening the area of supply. ED. S. R.]

FRENCH AND ENGLISH MUSICAL CRITICISM.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

London, 6 February, 1905.

SIR,—I beg to send a few lines in reply to an article in your last issue, headed as above. Whether the writer is or not a learned good musician, I am unable to say, but I find that his acquaintance with history, present or past, is rather deficient, while his arguments are somewhat discordant. His whole article is so bitter, so insulting to a "friendly nation", that the latter, no doubt, must have done him some harm, some injustice may be, one way or another. In this

case, let us be indulgent towards Mr. John F. Runciman and confine ourselves to a few remarks showing him that he is not in harmony with the actual truth.

1. When, for instance, your contributor says that "they [the French] seem to be a nation of spies", he deliberately distorts the facts, as everyone knows that, if the Combes' ministry fell, it was just because the elects of the nation reproved "delation".

2. When he glorifies the "stupendous genius of an Italian", he is still more at fault, because, after all, Napoleon's victories were won by armies composed of, and commanded by, Frenchmen, whose names have become historical. Nay, it is admitted on all sides that, if you place Napoleon at the head of the English and Wellington at the head of the French, the great battles of about a hundred years ago are no longer possible and history ignores them.

In proof of this, I will quote a passage of Albert Sorel's History, volume viii. After the battle of Dresden (1813), Napoleon, speaking to Metternich, said: "J'ai grandi sur les champs de bataille et un homme comme moi se soucie peu de la vie d'un million d'hommes." Wellington, on the contrary, always took great care not to sacrifice uselessly the lives of his soldiers.

Generally, musicians are of a pacific mind. In Molière's comedy "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme", the professor of music tells Monsieur Jourdain: "Tous les désordres, toutes les guerres qu'on voit dans le monde n'arrivent que pour n'apprendre pas la musique". But, Mr. Runciman, says with Sganarelle: "Nous avons changé tout cela"!

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

ALF HAMONET.

MESSRS. RICORDI'S SCHEME.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—Am I eternally to be plagued by dodgers and their dodges? When writing my article on Messrs. Ricordi's scheme I had Messrs. Ricordi's first proclamation by me: it is since burnt. Perhaps I misread Messenger for Massenet, but it really does not matter—there is no vast difference between tweedledum and tweedledee. No fourth member of the committee was mentioned: instead, we had the phrase "another whose name will be announced shortly". It is now announced that the fourth member will be Richter. So to judge an English opera we have four gentlemen:—

- (1) An old-fashioned Englishman.
- (2) A Frenchman.
- (3) An Italian.
- (4) A German.

I hope for the credit of our national intelligence that no opera will be submitted to this committee. Any librettist who allows his work to be judged from a sketch by this committee will prove himself an abject fool and ought to be promptly disqualified on that account. Richter's English is weak and I don't know that Massenet has any at all; I know nothing of Mr. Ricordi's; Mr. Bennett's is Telegraphese. I should be sorry to have any work of mine judged by these gentlemen. I made no "insinuation" about the possible theft of the scenario: I stated what everyone knows, that ideas have often been stolen and in such a case as the present theft is easily possible. Messrs. Ricordi's argument that if authors and composers did not submit their MSS. to publishers, they would remain forever unpublished is not to the point. No novelist sends the plot of a proposed novel to a publisher, no composer sends the themes of his projected symphony. Ideas are easily stolen: the case of a completed work is altogether different: it may easily be published elsewhere before the thief's task is accomplished. Perhaps the danger is not serious, but it exists; and anyhow, without verbal explanations, how can Messrs. Ricordi's or any other committee judge of a libretto from a mere sketch? Messrs. Ricordi have a right to spend £500 on advertising themselves; but let no one imagine they are doing anything for English music. Their notion is a silly one and the details of the scheme are absurd.

Yours faithfully,

JOHN F. RUNCIMAN.

REVIEWS.

THE ROMAN SUNSET.

"Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius." By Samuel Dill. London: Macmillan. 1905. 15s.

PROFESSOR DILL must certainly be placed in the front rank of Roman historians. His latest book is an enduring monument of patient research, critical insight, philosophical thoroughness, and human sympathy. He has already made known to English readers the society and thought of the expiring Western Empire; and he now treats the familiar, almost hackneyed, theme of the century and a half which elapsed between Nero and Aurelius. But he throws new light and understanding upon an epoch which perhaps somewhat puzzles and fatigues us. We may be acquainted with every name, perhaps with every fact or quotation he so accurately sets forth: but the work is original, the effect is novel. It is no barren re-statement of the well-worn themes; and there is something in Dr. Dill's method which brings very near to us and to our sympathies the men of that age, with all their weakness and aspiration. The division of the work sufficiently shows his wide scope and careful erudition; it increases in interest as it proceeds. The first book deals manfully with the threefold world-picture of noble (Seneca, Tacitus), of satirist (Juvenal and Martial), and of freedman (Petronius), under the Imperial Terror. Here the standpoint is possibly a little old-fashioned; and extends too far beyond a narrow and perhaps innocent circle the sense of impending doom; for to the vast mass security and not uncertainty was the keynote of the Empire. But we cannot deny the impressiveness and conviction of the manner and style; and we are certain that Seneca has never had a more kindly and sympathetic appreciation. In the second book, we leap suddenly into the full urban and municipal splendour of the Antonine age; the friends of Pliny the Younger, the organisation of the flourishing towns of Asia, or of Africa, the "colleges", "sodalities", and public feasting, the rule of the richer citizens, tempered by the lavish costliness of the gifts which the proletariat so confidently expected of them. Of the exuberant wealth of this material civilisation there is no such account extant in our language; Gibbon with his rapid induction and sure intuition hints at this "happiest period in the history of mankind", but he has left our author the welcome task of proving this verdict in detail. And if such splendid security could give peace of mind and satisfy man's imperious desires, no more successful attempt has ever been made. The socialistic state, bereft of its fatal feature of uniform equality, is before us; a plutocracy keenly conscious of its duties and alive to the delights of popularity, to the claims of a local patriotism; self-centred in its little independent urban fastness, yet conscious of the world-wide peace, the strong yet often gloved hand which guaranteed to each its priceless and untroubled autonomy.

Now, if Dr. Dill has a moral, it comes out in the third and fourth divisions of his book. The one portrays the secret misery and unrest of the reflecting and serious class in the earlier period, explores the sadness or the fear of Seneca in his palace, and shows us the Philosopher as spiritual "Director", as "Missionary and Revivalist" (Apollonius, Epictetus, Dio Chrysostom), as "parish priest and theologian" (Plutarch, Maximus of Tyre, and Aristides). Nearly one-third of the entire volume is engrossed by a description of that great religious restoration which from Augustus to Aurelius by degrees transformed the face of Roman Society. This, while duly rehabilitating the neglected formalism of the indigenous Latin worship and ceremony, spread manifold cults of the Orient over the West, in answer to a deep and widespread need.

It is undoubtedly here that Dr. Gill is most successful, and supplies a real hiatus in our knowledge of that time. He has patiently put together the evidence of inscriptions, that novel and irresistible testimony to its material prosperity and general contentment. In reading them, "our prejudices", as he tells us,

"against the early empire fade away". We are apt, in the flare and pageantry of Tacitus' drama, of Juvenal's satire, in the steady reaction and sullen displeasure of all Latin authors of the age, we are apt "to lose sight of great silent movements in the dim masses of society", of the "dim plebeian crowd", of the "dim sub-conscious feelings of the multitude", of the "great silent sunken class", and that "better side of slavery", which even if we allow largely for conventional phrase, the evidence of tombs makes so unmistakable. Hence too we get an insight into the supremely sociable side of provincial life, its constant association into guilds and confraternities; not so much for purpose of mutual defence against rival craftsmen or oppressive employers, but for enjoyment and brotherhood, for innocent common feasts and memorial service. In these the barriers of a fast "petrifying" caste-system were for the moment removed, and slave and freedman and master met on an equality and forgot in a common worship the chasms of rank. Hence too we get our knowledge of the definitely religious colleges founded (like the Arval Brethren) in prehistoric time, revived by the sagacious policy of Augustus, and providing like our English Freemasonry a certain though unobtrusive support to the Imperial power. It is from the inscriptions too that we learn the singular kindness and public spirit of the wealthier class; and that perhaps too lavish liberality to poor and State, which in the later age will impoverish the Curia, weaken the rulers, and pauperise the mob. But at least we may contrast it favourably with the curiously uncertain and hesitating attitude to-day, in which the well-equipped hesitate whether to give or to abstain. It is undoubtedly true that the "separation of classes in our great centres of civilisation is morally more sharp and decided than when the gulf between social rank was in theory impassable". Here too we read of that Indian summer of municipal prosperity, and the eagerness of civic life, undiverted from its native soil even by the magnet of the capital, which in a less favourable metaphor was also the "Sentina gentium". We do a tardy justice to the self-restraint of the Imperial Government, tending by an unhappy destiny and against its will towards a centralised and interfering bureaucracy; yet for long withholding its hands from the mismanagement of the native states and communities, in a genuine respect for these local liberties. This "bureaucratic interference" was largely due to "want of prudence or skill"; Bithynia (under Pliny) was a "signal instance of a general disorganisation". This control by the central power was certainly rather "invited than imposed". Municipal life was without doubt even then becoming more burdensome and less attractive; the service of the emperor, gradually assuming more and more definite and hierarchic form, offered far higher distinction and more solid recompense.

Contemporary authors were strangely unanimous in their reactionary sympathy, in their dislike of the two great movements, which established a religious philosophy, which gradually emancipated the servile and libertine classes, and conveyed to them the political power and social influence slipping from the indolent nobles. All alike, with Rousseau, lament the simple life of a fancied golden age, the honesty of a still more apocryphal republic. In their rhetorical training, one of the great evils of the educated classes, they sacrificed earnestness to the delight of making a point, and destroyed the worth of their righteous indignation by including with acknowledged crime those "innocent hobbies and laudable tastes which they threw together in one confused indictment". It is for this reason that for the sober and impartial student their denunciation carries little conviction; and their too sweeping verdict on the age is largely corrected or reversed.

The religious interest is predominant in this volume. Dr. Dill recognises with De Coulanges that "religion is the basis of all Græco-Roman civilisation"; and he traces with Boissier the reaction against the "desolating nihilism" of the Epicurean School, predominant in the later republic; the transformation of the doctrine of personal immortality, from a "numb spectral future" in actual sepulchre or gloomy underworld

into an individual survival full of hope and promise. He traces the permeation of Stoic positivism with the genial warmth and moral emotion of the earlier Platonic teaching; and shows how the Platonic school itself "shook off its sceptical tendencies in the first century before Christ". The Stoic creed with "vaguest and most arid conception of God", "dimmiest and least comforting conception of any future life", is obliged in the unrest and misery of intellectual society to reinforce itself by appeal to emotion and to faith. The philosophic monotheism of the whole Hellenic movement of thought, tending as it did to an impalpable and inaccessible abstraction, has to clothe itself in a parental garb of providential benevolence, "not far from every one of us", and passes from a physical into a moral definition. Men "craved no longer for a God to explain the Universe but to resolve the enigma of their own lives".

We note the utter absence of "intellectual curiosity", especially in Aurelius, the complete absorption in what we might term Soteriology; the reduction of all dialectic problems in all schools to a scanty equipment of practical maxims, the "eternal principles of true gain and loss, of the illusion of passion, of freedom through renunciation". We see the widespread attachment to the worship of Mithra and note the reason of its popularity in its appeal to chivalrous action: "a religion not of fatalistic reverie but of struggle and combat", "a kingly and military creed" full of the energy of hope, "a religion of strenuous effort and warfare with prospect of high reward in some far-off eternal life"; a worship, in short, "for vigorous men", whereas Isis, the "Mater Dolorosa" of Pagan antiquity, seems to appeal to the feminine and the despondent.

Dr. Dill has given us an admirable volume, and thrown a flood of light upon an age of undying yet puzzling interest. But he has not solved the great enigma, nor indeed will any future historian; perpetually the question recurs, why over an epoch so full of comfort and contentment, of healthy conservative and progressive tendencies does the shadow of coming doom brood so unmistakably and a deep sense of the unreality of all earthly enjoyment and success?

SIR FREDERICK TREVES GLOBE-TROTTER.

"The Other Side of the Lantern." By Sir Frederick Treves, Bart. London: Cassell. 1905. 12s. net.

SIR FREDERICK TREVES is, or was, the greatest surgeon of his day; and for success in this profession we have always understood the one thing needful is "nerve". This quality is apparent in this book, for it requires no small amount of nerve to write an account of a tour round the world along such a well-beaten course as India, Ceylon, Singapore, Hongkong, Shanghai, Japan, Hawaii, and the Yosemite Valley. On his titlepage Sir Frederick Treves calls it "an account of a commonplace tour", and we are sorry to be obliged to add that the account is as commonplace as the tour. The great surgeon is not the first traveller who has been struck by the melancholy of India and the listlessness of the mild Hindoo. We search in vain for anything like a shrewd or original observation upon the well-known visiting places of the East. Perhaps what used to be called the Grand Tour has been done so often by so many globe-trotters that it is impossible to write anything new about it. But why did so clever a man as Sir Frederick Treves attempt the impossible? Who for instance cares at this time of day to read the story of Cawnpore in long extracts from Holmes' "History of the Indian Mutiny"? Everybody knows that John Chinaman is a conservative, who only wants to be left alone, but who, if he is forced to go abroad for his living, makes himself at home wherever he goes. The illustrations taken from Sir Frederick's photographs are good. But our great operator must be strangely deficient in literary experience, or endued with an irrepressible energy. Otherwise he would never have taken the trouble to exchange the knife for the pen-

merely to produce a fat guide-book which, even at that, is not well done. So great a specialist as Sir Frederick Treves ought not to forget the proverb of the cobbler, and when he invites comparisons with the Baedekers and the Murrays, not to mention the Sladens and the Chamberlains, it is to his own disadvantage. Had he given us an account of the hospitals of the East there would have been some point in this bulky volume. And it is because Sir Frederick does allude to the military hospital system of the Japanese, that the chapters on Japan are the only interesting part of the book.

We cannot agree with the writer that the Japanese are a devout people, or that religion is anything more than a name to them. The old people indeed are left to potter about the temples, but young Japan smiles indulgently at such trifling. Nor does it strike us that their code of morality, as we understand the term, is particularly high. Of sexual morality they hardly know the meaning, and those who have business in Japan will tell you that their merchants are not nearly so honest as the Chinese. In fact the religion of the Japanese is Japan; love of their country, and willingness to suffer and spend in its defence take the place of dogma and ritual in other nations. Besides their patriotism the Japanese have other great and attractive virtues: they are sober, hard-working, gentle, exquisite in their ideas of personal cleanliness, and with very pretty manners—rickshaw-coolies excepted. What Sir Frederick Treves says of the Japanese Army medical service and their Red Cross Society is most interesting, especially as it contains an oblique reflection upon certain organisations of our own that sprang into life during the South African war. "Owing to the kindness of the Minister for War and the Director-General of the Army Medical Service", writes Sir Frederick, "I was able to see the medical field equipment, the military hospitals, as well as the general arrangements for the reception of the sick and wounded. I also became acquainted with the Japanese Red Cross Society. This business-like organisation is the most remarkable and efficient of its kind in the world. It not only undertakes to look after the sick and wounded, and so relieve the War Department at a critical moment of an enormous responsibility, but it concerns itself with the soldier's comfort from the beginning of the campaign to the end. It "mothers" him in a sensible manner, without either extravagance or hysteria, and makes him feel that all that is done is merely the endeavour of the country to show its appreciation of his services and its sympathy with his hardships. The Society continues its work when the war is over, and does not depend for its maintenance upon a fitful and ecstatic outburst of sentiment which barely survives the crisis that evoked it. This is the noble feature of the Red Cross Society of Japan, that after the glamour of war has faded the soldier is not forgotten".

In the opinion of one of the very best of judges, the Japanese woman makes "a splendid nurse." She has a "passion for cleanliness" and "the exquisite soft voice which is common to all her countrywomen," no small merits in a nurse. The Japanese Army doctor occupies himself less with the treatment of the sick and wounded (that he leaves to the nurses), than with the supervision of the personal hygiene of the camp. "He taught the men how to cook, how to bathe, how to cleanse the finger-nails so as to free them from bacteria": he also goes before the army with the first screen of scouts, "with his microscopes and chemicals, testing and labelling wells, so that the army which followed should drink no contaminated water". As a result of this system, "during six months of fighting and exposure in a foreign country there was only a fraction of 1 per cent. of loss from preventable disease". In the Boer war 13,250 soldiers died of disease. "It is a little distressing to reflect", concludes Sir Frederick Treves, "how many lives might have been saved if the methods of the Japanese Medical Service had been adopted by the British army". All this is very valuable, and we wish there had been more of it, and less of ordinary globe-trotting description.

A SOCIALIST VIEW OF TARIFF REFORM.

"Progress and the Fiscal Problem." By Thomas Kirkup. London: Black. 1905. 3s. 6d. net.

READERS of Mr. Kirkup's "History of Socialism" and the article on Socialism in the "Encyclopædia Britannica" will always turn with interest to his views on social questions. All his writings show that he is not influenced by any narrow class or partisan prejudices, either of a political or economic kind; but that his conclusions are founded on wide reading and quiet, cool and shrewd thinking. It is decidedly characteristic that he sees in the proposals for modifying our free-trade system something more than a mere economic change. He regards them as a tendency, with which he is in full sympathy, in the direction of extending the influence and control of the State over the whole industrial life of the nation. We should indeed be surprised if a writer of Mr. Kirkup's socialistic opinions took the free-trade view, which is opposed to the elementary principles of socialism, being individualism rampant. But it would not be sufficient from his standpoint to part company with free trade merely by introducing a tariff system, however necessary that may be for protection against the competition of rising nations such as Germany and the United States. We have not read an equally simple and lucid demonstration of this necessity in any of the numerous books and pamphlets which the tariff controversy has produced; but that by no means comprises all that Mr. Kirkup understands to be included in the question. The imposition of a duty on foodstuffs is not the bogey to him that it is to many who, sympathising not at all more with the poorer classes, represent a duty on food as an intolerable burden. But the whole matter is not concluded with the imposition of the duty. He puts it thus: "The movement for tariff reform leading to favourable consideration for agriculture will give a really progressive Government the right to encourage, if not to insist on, much needful change." We know that Mr. Kirkup has had peculiar opportunities of understanding the position of the "hind" as his countrymen call the agricultural labourer, and he believes "It is no exaggeration to say that no working-man who has any self-respect or any regard for the future of his children will stay on the land. For generations the intelligent and enterprising rural worker has gone into the towns or to the colonies in search of a decent and honourable career. The progress in education by intensifying the discontent with such conditions has only increased this tendency." We quote this to show that though Mr. Kirkup believes both in the protection of agriculture and manufactures he is not by any means to be accused, as free traders do accuse those who are not free traders, of being unmindful of the well being of the working classes. There is no need to set out here the numerous changes which he thinks should accompany the surrender of our free trade; we will only say that Mr. Kirkup on these and similar points amply makes good the claim of his preface to explain the fiscal problem from certain points of view which have not been considered by most other writers. In particular we would recommend those who see in free trade the only source of British prosperity, and represent all the evils before free trade as the result of protection, to read the chapter on the actual industrial and economic history of England.

Mr. Kirkup's book is especially valuable in treating of the changed circumstances that have arisen through the progress of foreign competition with Great Britain. He believes that this has entirely altered the view which was reasonably taken by free traders in the days before the rise of the United States and Germany as great industrial powers. In regard to the means by which this new order of things should be met his conclusions are an unreserved acceptance of such protective measures as tariff reformers advocate, and the adoption of colonial preferences. He says of them "It is a secondary question whether we use the word protection to describe these measures, but it is important that we should discard misleading associations connected with the history of the word. The

old protective system was in the main designed to serve the interests of the land-holding class. The new system, if it is adopted, can be carried on only by a sufficient number of votes of the whole population for the national interest. The word will have a new significance. The thing it now denotes will be very different from the old." Again he points out that one of the great arguments used in favour of free trade is that protection involves Government interference with liberty. He considers this question in an interesting chapter on "Freedom and Progress" which does not at first sight seem to have much to do with the fiscal question. A little reflection, however, reveals its close connexion with it in the tendency to overestimate the value of the idea of liberty, which must be taken in connexion with actual circumstances; in fiscal matters as well as in others we may have to impose restrictions on ourselves for the sake of our ultimate greater good. Mr. Kirkup as a socialist must of course believe in the actual, or at any rate potential, capacity of Government for undertaking much of the work which has been hitherto left to private effort. His position is that the British Government of our times is much more efficient and less under the influence of a privileged class than it used to be, and that the distrust of governmental intervention is to be ascribed to the tradition of the dominance of the landed aristocracy during the eighteenth century and down to the repeal of the Corn Laws in the nineteenth. He says "We do not affirm that there is no justification whatever for retaining this view. But the right and reasonable way now is not to suspect and circumscribe and weaken government, but to make it a more efficient organ for the promotion of the public good. If we have not such a government, the want of it will be serious; it may be a fatal element of weakness in the competition which we must now wage with foreign countries. The view of the functions of the State, to which we have referred, while it had full justification as a phase of history, is at the present time mainly a prejudice; and it is not an idle or harmless prejudice; it may be a fatal one". Mr. Kirkup's book is certainly one of the best books for popular reading that has appeared on the topic of fiscal reform; and he is full of enthusiasm for the idea of the closer union of Great Britain and her colonies, and of belief in the method of preferences as one of the means by which it may be attained.

THE SEVEN CHURCHES AND THE SEVEN CITIES.

"The Letters to the Seven Churches of Asia." By W. M. Ramsay. London: Hodder and Stoughton. 1904. 12s.

NO piece of ancient literature, certainly no book of the Bible, has suffered so much from fantastic interpretations as the Revelation of S. John. His quaint apocalyptic imagery proved for several centuries an unfailling repertory of missiles to pelt the Papacy: the Beast with his enigmatic number, Babylon and "the Scarlet Lady" are only known to many people to-day in this connexion. And grave expositors from the seventeenth to the nineteenth century have systematically read into the Book the whole story of the Christian Church in its conflict with the world, and then have ventured to read out of it on the same principles its future history to the end of time. Such treatment has so thoroughly discredited the Book that when it was lately announced that one of our most learned and sober theologians was about to write a commentary on it the statement drew from many of his admirers an almost involuntary expression of amused surprise. We owe a debt of gratitude to Professor Ramsay for having boldly seized upon a portion of this Book and with a discoverer's zeal offered it to the reading public as an important monument of ancient history, deserving to be studied in the light of a research which is peculiarly his own, and capable in its turn of casting some illumination on the dark places of the period and the locality to which it belongs. Professor Ramsay is a popular writer as well as a very learned investigator; his work will reach many who would not be attracted by the

ordinary forms of exposition, and wherever it goes it will revive an intelligent interest in one of the most astonishing products of early Christianity.

The volume before us is professedly concerned only with two chapters of the Apocalypse, the second and the third, which contain a series of messages dictated in a vision to the Apostle by our Lord Himself. It is to be regretted that Professor Ramsay should have adopted the popular but misleading phraseology which speaks of these as "Seven Letters". Neither in form nor in substance are they letters: they are messages to the individual Churches embodied in one general letter which after a few preliminary words opens thus: "John to the seven Churches which are in Asia: Grace be unto you", &c. This one letter includes the whole Apocalypse, and closes somewhat after the manner of S. Paul's letters with the farewell salutation: "The grace of the Lord Jesus be with the saints". The messages to the Churches are more like the "burdens" of an ancient prophet, who in the fullness of inspiration prefixed to his utterances "Thus saith the Lord". So each of these messages begins: "These things saith He that . . .", and the speaker's personality is described by various symbolic elements of the vision which immediately precedes. So convinced is Professor Ramsay that we really have here seven letters written by the Apostle, every phrase of which bears some special relation to the geographical position or the past history or the political circumstances of the city whose Church is addressed, that he supposes that the letters were written or conceived first, and that the vision of the Priestly Figure was a subsequent conception in which the various descriptive elements were brought together. It is a fatal flaw in this position that all the symbols of the vision are essentially Hebraic, and to a large extent are expressed in the actual language of the Old Testament: indeed two only would not be immediately intelligible to a Jewish reader, and these two—the stars and the candlesticks—are as a matter of fact the only symbols of which an interpretation is expressly given: "the seven stars are the angels of the seven churches, and the seven candlesticks are the seven churches". It is further noteworthy that while the initial description in each Message is drawn from the preceding chapter which contains the vision, the final promises find their counterparts in the later visions, and especially in the closing chapter of the Book. These are as Hebraic in their conception as the former, and like them are mainly couched in Old Testament language. It is not unlikely that all the visions had shaped themselves in the Apostle's mind, if indeed they were not actually written, before the Messages to the several churches received their final form.

Professor Ramsay opens with a discussion of "Writing, travel, and letters among the early Christians". He lays stress on the familiar employment of writing in the ordinary affairs of life, which has been of late years so wonderfully illustrated by the mass of Egyptian documents of all sorts written on papyrus and preserved in Egypt alone—only because in Egypt alone the dryness of the soil protects all that is buried beneath it. Of travel in the early Christian centuries he has told us much in several of his books, and here he adds information of great interest in regard to one form of it, viz. the bearing of letters from place to place, whether by the imperial letter-carriers who served imperial purposes only, or by the special staff of messengers organised by each great trading company. He makes the interesting suggestion that at a very early period a special staff of *tabellarii* must have been established by the Christian brotherhood to serve the constant needs of intercommunication of an institution which, according to his view, soon recognised that it was destined to be a rival organisation to the imperial government itself. Be that as it may, there can be no doubt that he has given us an intelligible reason for the choice of the seven Churches addressed in the Apocalypse as representative of the whole Church of the Asian Province. The map which he prefixes to his volume shows us that they all lie on important roads which form, very roughly speaking, a right-angled triangle, with Ephesus at the right angle and nearest to Patmos, and with Pergamum at the most northerly point and Laodicea at the most

easterly. The messenger therefore who carried the Apostolic Letter landing at Ephesus would proceed northwards along a great road through Smyrna to Pergamum, thence he could turn south-east along another great road—the hypotenuse of the triangle—through Thyatira, Sardis, and Philadelphia to Laodicea. He would thus pass through the Churches in the order in which they are addressed in the Apocalypse, and would return along the base of the triangle to his starting-point of Ephesus. Professor Ramsay assumes that a kind of ecclesiastical post was already established with each of these cities as headquarters; and at least he is justified in his assertion that they were so placed as to be natural points to serve as centres of communication with the Churches of the rest of the Province.

The Seven Cities are described in turn with minute detail and with an univalued knowledge gained by long study and personal inspection of their localities and existing movements. The particular cult of each city is investigated, and this and other characteristics are admirably illustrated by large and clear drawings of their respective coins. Moreover the actual appearance of the cities or of their deserted sites at the present day is shown by sixteen plates which reproduce recent photographs. There are but few persons who have the requisite knowledge which would enable them to offer any serviceable criticism of this portion of the work. It is extremely attractive and will doubtless inspire many a reader with a desire to visit this fascinating district. The author's application of the characteristics, historical and geographical, of the several cities to the interpretation of the Messages conveyed to them through the Apostle will seem to many persons somewhat of a tour de force. They will not readily be convinced that S. John was familiar with the local sentiment of each particular place, or that the Christians would have set such store by it or have considered themselves, as Professor Ramsay supposes, the true nucleus of the city's life, bearing the responsibility of its future fortunes. Nor is it probable that the Professor will gain general credence for his view of the Nicolaitans, whom he regards as a school of liberal thinkers who made "an attempt to effect a reasonable compromise with the established usages of Græco-Roman society and to retain as many as possible of those usages in the Christian system of life", and who accordingly cannot be condemned by the historian "in so strong and even bigoted a fashion as S. John condemned them". Still less acceptable will be his apology for "that very worthy, active, and managing, but utterly mistaken lady of Thyatira" whom the Apostle most unsympathetically calls Jezebel. We may remember however that the Professor is not and would not wish to be considered a theologian, and while we do not accept his exegesis of the text, we may still be profoundly grateful to him for the healthy atmosphere into which he lifts his readers, and for the solid contribution which he has made to one important side of the study of a Book which can never lose its mysterious interest.

PRIMITIVE SPAIN.

"Essai sur l'Art et l'Industrie de l'Espagne Primitive." Par Pierre Paris. 2 vols. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1904. 32s.

THIS book comes as a surprise and a revelation. It opens another new and very wide field to historical and archaeological speculation by conjuring up from the soil of Spain a long forgotten pre-Roman civilisation, strongly characterised by itself, but at the same time closely akin, in its earlier manifestations, to that we still call for convenience sake Ægean, Cretan or Mycenaean, and which we are accustomed to localise on the eastern shores and islands of the Mediterranean Sea. It bears at times traces of Oriental—principally Chaldean—and much later of classical Greek influences, but through a long course of centuries never loses its own peculiar individuality, its genuine monuments being always distinguishable at a glance from imported Phœnician or Greek works. This, M. Paris' main point, is established beyond any possible doubt by this important book.

If our written sources give us some scanty informa-

tion concerning the Phœnician and Greek settlements on the south-eastern coast of Spain, they leave us nearly in the dark as to the history of the aboriginal peoples of the peninsula and their culture and civilisation. We know that from a very remote date the wealth in silver of the region of the Tartessos and the tin from Lusitania and Galicia—not to speak of the purple fisheries on the coast—had attracted Sidon and Tyre's trade, and that as early perhaps as the twelfth century B.C. the Phœnicians had established themselves at Gadeira and its neighbourhood. The secret of their Spanish factories was however kept very jealously, and not till the second half of the seventh century B.C.—long after they had founded Karthago as a victualling port on their way home—was this secret found out by the Ionians, who took advantage of Phœnicia's recently diminished power through Assyria's hands to extend their seafaring half-piratical expeditions as far as the western part of the Mediterranean. Towards 630 B.C. a party of Samians led by a certain Kolaïos were the first to rediscover, so to say, the land of silver, about which the mythical legends of Hellas had preserved some dim recollection. But the Samians' was only a passing venture, and not till the Phocæans had founded Massalia at the dawn of the sixth century B.C. did the Greeks settle permanently on the Spanish coast.

Many of the places thus colonised have yielded a rich harvest of purely Phœnician—or Greek—works of art and craft, obviously imported from the mother countries. Such works, however, are never found beyond the immediate limits of the sea-coast settlements, whilst for a long time the existence has been known, over the whole area of the peninsula, of monuments of various kinds—most of them much anterior to the earliest foreign colonisation—bearing witness of an aboriginal culture quite distinct from that of the colonists. Mr. Paris has constituted himself the champion and explorer of this Iberic civilisation, and has succeeded, through careful and patient investigations—for the most part carried out on the spot—in gathering together a large series of monuments, a great many of them not previously noticed, which form a wonderfully connected whole, illustrating the evolution of Iberic art from its remotest beginnings, down to the Roman conquest. The author reviews them under the different headings of Architecture, Sculpture, Ceramics, Small Bronzes, Jewellery and Arms, and for the later period, Coins: the result is most striking, one would even say disconcerting, by the many important problems it raises as to the earlier Iberic culture, problems far from easily solved in the present state of our knowledge. Side by side with quite barbarian buildings, sculptures and vases—marking an earlier stage of aboriginal civilisation in close connexion with the neolithic remains unearthed by MM. Siret at Los Millares, near Almería—are found cyclopean walls and buildings—cupola-shaped tombs, with their "dromos" and side-wings—painted vases, recalling as to shape and decoration nearly all the varieties of primitive pottery discovered at Cyprus, Creta, Thebes, Mycenæ &c.—large and small bronzes, gold ornaments—all strongly resembling the now familiar monuments of the so-called Ægean, Cretan and Mycenaean culture—yet quite distinct from them, being neither copies nor imitations, but rather free interpretations.

The sculptures bring in still another element, some of them exhibiting striking affinities with the earlier statues and reliefs found in Chaldæa by M. de Sarzec. Whilst M. Paris puts down this Chaldæan influx to the credit of Phœnician and Ionian importation he explains the share which primitive East-Mediterranean culture seems to have had in the development of Iberic art, by supposing an early intercourse—of which, let it be noted, we have no independent record whatever—between the "Mycenaean" peoples and the peoples of the Western Peninsula. In neither case does the explanation seem to hold good: the Chaldæan art as reflected in some of the Iberic monuments is not posterior to the time of Gudea—the middle of the third millennium B.C.—and not till a millennium and a half or two millenniums later did the Phœnicians first, the Ionian Greeks afterwards, settle in Spain. At this time Chaldæan art as revealed to us by the Tel-Loh sculptures existed no

more, and had given way long before to the later Babylonian and Assyrian art, samples of which alone could have been imported to Spain by the colonists.

As to the monuments bearing the "Mycenian" stamp, they are not limited to the coast, or to some spot or spots in particular, as in the case of Phœnician or Greek importations or direct imitations: they are spread all over the peninsula, from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean shores and the Balearic Islands, and from the Bay of Biscay to the Straits of Gibraltar, as one can see at a glance from the map which closes Mr. Paris' second volume, on which all the places where such monuments have been noticed are indicated by dots. This expansion of a foreign culture over the whole area of a large country cannot possibly be explained by mere commercial relations between the aborigines and the foreign peoples: it must necessarily have had much deeper and more intrinsic causes, and can only be accounted for by a wholesale immigration into the Iberic peninsula of a people already in full possession of the culture associated with "Mycenian" monuments. In what circumstances such an immigration took place, and at what time, is, and will probably remain for a long time, an insoluble problem: all that can be said is that it probably is connected with one or the other of those large displacements of peoples from East to West which did take place during the fifth, fourth and third millennium B.C., and which mostly originated from Mesopotamia and the adjacent countries.

The interest of M. Paris' volumes is not restricted to the primitive periods of Iberic culture: the author follows up this culture—whose early self-consistency he has so cleverly demonstrated—through classical times, and here again he shows its persistent individuality, and how freely and independently Iberic artists, at their prime, have interpreted the all-absorbing classical Greek influence from abroad.

The importance of the book can hardly be overrated: it will undoubtedly henceforward mark an epoch in the discovery of European early civilisation. The illustrations are as beautiful and interesting as they are abundant.

NOVELS.

"He that Eateth Bread with Me." By H. A. Mitchell Keays. London: Methuen. 1905. 6s.

This novel, with an unpardonable title, is a study of the effect upon character of the facile divorce laws of the United States. Mackemer, an able barrister tiring of a wife whose nature is too fine for him, falls under the spell of a brilliant sensuous woman who happens to be the wife of somebody else. The lovers obtain each a divorce without difficulty and marry. The lady's first husband dies conveniently, but the original Mrs. Mackemer, retaining her only child, remains a powerful influence in her faithless husband's life. He is clearly one of those men to whom Mormonism offers an escape from perplexities, but as he is a New Yorker he is compelled to abide by his mistake. The illness of his boy, to whom he is devoted, reveals to him that his first wife has never really been dethroned from her place. The story traces his sentimental waverings, in which it is impossible to take much interest, but the author contrives to present effectively the contrast between the characters of the two women. The light relief afforded by a slangy girl is a little tedious, and the writing is somewhat strained at times. We have, for instance, such a phrase as "the chalcid perfume of tender bud breathed prodigal upon the dreamy air".

"In Spite of the Czar." By Guy Boothby. London: Long. 1905. 5s.

Mr. Boothby's catchpenny title obscures the fact that his new novel has no political interest, and is in no way topical. Certain Englishmen attempt to trace a store of gold and diamonds hidden in Siberia which belongs of right to the Russian Government. They would have been easily frustrated by the villain of the drama, an English merchant with a sumptuous house at Irkutsk, had the latter not been idiot enough to ruin his own schemes by kidnapping the heroine and cheating his partner in crime, an unsavoury German Jew. Thus

what might have been a treasure hunt turns into a race in sleighs which ends murderously on the ice of Lake Baikal. Mr. Boothby writes less carelessly than is his wont, but his wild plot is never convincing, and he has not quite caught the style of the elderly English peer to whom he entrusts the telling of half his tale. But there is enough violence in the book to hold the attention of those who like their fiction in a crude state.

"The Song of a Single Note." By Amelia E. Barr. London: Unwin. 1905. 6s.

Miss Barr's latest story is very like her others, composed of the usual ingredients, a certain amount of historic fact, a mild love story, and a great deal of religious and moral sentiment, arising out of strong Protestant convictions. One marked characteristic of all the people in her stories, no matter what their period or place, is an inordinate love of tea-drinking—it is the chief source of comfort, the main centre of merry-making. And during the siege of New York, in the War of the American Independence, tea must have been an expensive luxury. Though her plot is somewhat rambling and ill-constructed, and her heroine's love affairs and lovers quite commonplace, Miss Barr has sufficient experience to give an air of reality to her creations, and she writes with ease and intelligence, and even with dramatic force. Her stories are always mildly interesting, and are at any rate quite wholesome reading for girls.

"The Career of Harold Ensleigh." By Walter B. Harris. London: Blackwood. 1904. 6s.

Harold Ensleigh was an irritating prig. At Harrow he used to moon about the churchyard and come in late for lock-up. His housemaster, Eric Strowan, a travesty of Edward Bowen, found him one evening at Byron's tomb and became engrossed in his character. There ensued long colloquies with Mrs. Ensleigh about the boy's career, a heavy uncle was consulted and Harold was sent out to a mine on the borders of Abyssinia. He left just in time to escape a Galla rising, but caught a fever and unfortunately recovered. Mr. Strowan inherited a Scottish property and became engaged to Mrs. Ensleigh. That is the whole of the plot, which is eked out with dreary dissertations upon the young prig's career. We should have expected better things from Mr. Harris, in whose favour we can only say that he writes as one knowing Harrow and Somaliland.

"Hints of Love." By Dacre Hindle. London: John Long. 1904. 6s.

Why this novel was ever written or, having been written, ever published it is impossible to say. It is not even clever. The author mistakes vulgarity for wit and the tone and atmosphere of the book are alike impossible.

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NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"Scandinavia: A Political History of Denmark, Norway and Sweden from 1513 to 1900. By R. Nisbet Bain. Cambridge: at the University Press. 1905. 5s.

Mr. Bain has written a book which would probably be distinctly popular if any account of the history of Sweden and Norway could be really popular with English readers; but though the style is "eminently readable" the work we believe is quite sound. Mr. Bain is an accomplished scholar in the Scandinavian languages, and he has studied with care the native authorities. Those chapters of his book which relate to Christina, Vasa and Axel Oxenstjerna are exceedingly interesting. We like Mr. Bain's personal touches which seem to us telling and never overdone. When Charles IX. died, on his deathbed he indicated to his counsellors Gustavus as his successor with the words "Ille faciet". We should be tempted to translate them into modern slang, "he'll do". This perhaps would exactly express the thought that was in Charles' mind at the time. The pages on Charles XII. are not remarkable, but there is an interesting sketch of that great Swede Gustavus Vasa "God's Miracle-man", and of the brilliant and in some essential ways unqueenly Christina. After she had squandered the money of the state, and created 17 Counts, 46 Barons, and 428 lesser nobles, power began to bore her to extinction; she dressed up as a man and under the name of Count Dohna fled from duties which she detested. She died at Rome thirty-five years after her flight poor and forgotten. What a subject for the historical novelist! But we hope it will not be undertaken by some popular novelist who has never read Swedish history and does not know a word of the language. Coming down to present times Mr. Bain gives a careful account of the constitutional struggle between Sweden and Norway over the Union and the separate consulate question. He touches on the strong conservatism of the ruling classes in Sweden who were scandalised at the election of Branting, the first socialist deputy, to the Riksdag in 1896; and still more by the decision of King Oscar, a few years later, to receive favourably the bearers of the monster radical petition for universal suffrage.

"English Medicine in the Anglo-Saxon Times." By Joseph Frank Payne. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1904.

This volume consists of the Fitz-Patrick Lectures in 1903, which were well worth putting into a more permanent form. If commercial success were the sole purpose of the publisher, a book like this would probably never appear. It is clear, happily, that a certain number of books are brought out every season, even at the publisher's own risk, in which commerce is of little or no consideration. Would there were a great many more. Mr. Payne has collected a large number of the odd superstitions of the Anglo-Saxons as to diseases and their cure, but this work is more than a book of mere curiosities. He strives to throw light on the meaning and genesis of some of their charms and cures. Everybody knows, or should know, that Anglo-Saxon literature as a whole is a rich and comprehensive body of work: the Anglo-Saxons were the first branch of the Germanic stock to put forth a real national literature—compared with them the other branches on the Continent were rude untutored people. But probably very few students of English literature have an idea of the amount of writing on medical subjects which was undertaken by Anglo-Saxons. Mr. Payne's should interest all people who care for Anglo-Saxon history.

"The Roedeer." By "Snaffle." London: Harwar. 1904.

It has long been a deficiency in natural history that the mammals have been neglected. There is much room for monographs on the separate mammals. Like Mr. Millais, the author of this monograph has done well to gather together the admirable little bits of personal information which have appeared from time to time in the "Field" and "Zoologist"; and the length of time which the work has taken to complete has been an advantage in itself. Not the least interesting part of the book is the account of the hunting of the roedeer in France and of the astonishing success in training the "chiens de change"; and the section of the work dealing with the hunting of the roe is more vivaciously written than the rest. The other sections deal with "the natural history", "the shooting of the roe", "the roe in heraldry", "the management of the roe". We should like to see a library of such monographs on our larger mammals. A small shelf would hold them.

"Bridge Up to Date." By Mrs. Tennant. London: Parkins & Gotto. 1905. 6d. net.

There are many Bridge players who would like to know the new rules adopted by the Portland and Turf Clubs but who do not care to wade through much extraneous matter to get at them. For such as these a pamphlet entitled "Bridge Up to Date" has just been brought out by Mrs. Tennant, author of the "A. B. C." of Bridge. It contains the only changes of importance to practical players, a "Memoria Technica" of the

court card leads, and a few general hints which will be of use to beginners. Mrs. Tennant has put the leads into rhyme, which, when once learnt, will do away with one of the greatest difficulties of the game.

THE FEBRUARY REVIEWS.

Russia is the chief topic in the Reviews, and the various articles lose nothing in point from the fact that they were going to press at the moment when Russia's internal disquiet resolved itself into riot and bloodshed in the capital and other cities. The "National" leads the way with a new attack on the Tsar by the writer of the notorious "Quarterly Review" article which created a mild sensation three months ago. The Editor speaks of his contributor's "ruthless pages" descriptive of the autocracy at work and this gentleman from the security of his anonymity writes thirty pages to show that he rather understated the case against the Tsar in his first paper and that Nicholas II. now stands forth as "the author of the present sanguinary war, the marplot of the military staff and the main obstacle to the peace to which he has so often publicly done lip worship". The scathing onslaught is apparently based on familiarity with Russian officialdom, though if the writer's facts are facts we fail to understand how he can be in possession of them without someone being in a position to unveil his identity. He concludes with the suggestion that though Nicholas II. may still hope for something from fate "he has much to fear from time and men, to whose warnings he has hitherto been blind and deaf". In the "Contemporary" both Dr. Dillon and Mr. Alexander Ular deal with the prospects of Russian revolution. Dr. Dillon says there is no longer a head shaping and directing the course of events; "certain forces are felt, certain things happen, the entire people drifts", and chaos prevails. Mr. Ular enlarges on the corruption from which even Ministers are not free and the growing conviction that the only way to save the fifth of the Budget "which is the average amount stolen every year" is national control over public expenditure. In Mr. Ular's view Russia can only be saved by a Constitution, and if the Tsar refuses to give way to the political claims of his subjects he will be forced to make economic concessions as a consequence of domestic and foreign developments. He looks to M. Witte to turn the political defeat of Tsarism into a social victory for the Tsar. In "Blackwood's" there is only brief mention of Russia's internal troubles, the writer of "Musings Without Method" taking the view that the Tsar missed an opportunity on 22 January of gaining a popularity which has fallen to the lot of few autocrats. The "Fortnightly" prints a long supplementary article by Dr. A. S. Rapoport entitled "Is Russia on the Eve of a Revolution?" He thinks a glance at the rise and development of the revolutionary movement is enough to show how far the spirit of non-resistance and submissiveness, the inertia and resignation to authority are deeply rooted in the Russian soul. By their own strength the Russian people will in his opinion never break down present conditions, and he suggests that it is the sacred duty of Western nations to help to liberty those in Russia who cannot help themselves—a doctrine which Europe is hardly likely to endorse. The "Nineteenth Century" has a useful paper by Mr. C. Hagberg Wright on Russia's view of her mission: Mr. Wright does not express any particular view himself, but summarises certain pamphlets issued for the benefit of the bureaucratic and upper classes on the one hand and of the peasantry on the other. The point that is emphasised in these publications seems to us to be the civilising mission of Russia in the Far East and her superior claims as a colonising and protecting power over those of any other race including Great Britain. Mr. Wright also gives some idea of popular Russian fiction, the keynote of which seems to be Christianity. Several of the Reviews publish accounts of the siege of Port Arthur, the most graphic being Mr. Richard Barry's in the "Monthly". "It is simply a question of mathematics. The loss of life appeals, the spectacle attracts, the glory enthralls, but the intellect commands. A chess-board and two skilled players—such are Port Arthur, Nogi and Stössel."

The alien immigration question is discussed in two excellent papers: by Mr. James Devonport Whelpley in the "Fortnightly Review" and by Colonel Evans Gordon in the "Nineteenth Century." Colonel Gordon describes the evils from which England suffers as a consequence of the admission of the undesirable alien who crowds in as fast as the valuable native worker emigrates; Mr. Whelpley makes a statesman-like effort to grapple with the problem, and suggests that it be made, as it should be, an international affair. Every nation is interested because while all want to keep their best citizens, none wants the scum of the population of other countries. He therefore proposes that an international agreement should be arrived at to encourage a high moral, physical, political and educational standard of admission for immigrants; that immigrants should be in a position which would render un-

necessary immediate dependence upon charity; that precautions should be taken against the spread of disease from one country to another; that undue activity on the part of transportation agents should be checked; and that a world-wide system of police identification and restraint of criminals should be maintained. Only by some form of international arrangement can the movements of the undesirables be controlled. Even the United States with its stringent laws cannot unassisted prevent thousands from getting through who should never have been brought to its ports. The States are in the position of attempting to "beat back the tide after it has rolled upon the shore". The numbers they turn away are sufficient evidence of the need of some sort of pressure being brought to bear on the source of supply, and not the least suggestive point made by Mr. Whelpley is that international public opinion would compel each country to assume full responsibility for the proper care of its own. "One of the greatest benefits which might come to the world from such co-operation among nations would be the power for good in the correcting of the notorious evils of government. The moral force of such an alliance would be tremendous and the physical force, should it become necessary to exercise it, overwhelming and decisive." Mr. Whelpley's article deserves to be widely read.

Party questions find exponents in Sir Wemyss Reid and Mr. Frewen Lord who write on the affairs of the month in the "Nineteenth Century" and in Mr. J. Ramsay Macdonald in the "Independent", in whose usually unimportant pages he reviews the arguments for and against second ballots. He says that "on the whole the second ballot makes for incoherence and our present system for coherence, because the latter both tests the growth of new opinions and hastens the burying of old ones". Mr. Macdonald's view is that "the organic evolution of political parties and legislation is secured with more certainty by a single ballot than by two". His idea of a new party takes us to the philosophical suggestions for a new party made in the "Fortnightly" by Dr. Beattie Crozier. The principles and methods of Dr. Crozier's party are summarised by him thus:—"1. It is a party of action, of practical constructive statesmanship, and not of party platform propagandism or appeal. 2. It will form a central core within each and all of the existing parties, and not a separate party outside them. 3. It will rely for its voting power on the great body of thoughtful men of all parties and of all conditions of life who furnish that swing of the pendulum, as it is called, which brings in Ministries and turns them out again." Dr. Crozier would admit "no rotten planks in the shape of abstract ideas" into his new political party, which he calls the party of evolution. In conclusion he urges that "unless the Press can contrive to let its searchlight cover more of the intellectual landscape than the squirrel tracks of the House of Commons, no statesman of higher rank than a third-rate player will, except by accident, be found within its portals". In the "Contemporary" Mr. Augustine Birrell has some obiter dicta on Patriotism and Christianity. He spoils a good phrase when he says "Like trade was once said to do, Imagination must follow the flag". His view is that the relation of Christianity to patriotism ought not to be overlooked particularly if both are to be taught in our State-provided schools. But he says "Christianity is not a tribal religion. It is based on the Fatherhood of God and not on the British Empire, which quite truthfully asserts that it in no way concerns itself with the religions comprised within its rule. The Lion and the Unicorn are not particularly religious beasts", a conclusion which he seems to have reached mainly in consequence of the Education Act of 1902, though he does not say so in so many words. Mr. L. Cope Cornford's article in the "Monthly" on "The Wardship of Empire" is an appreciation of the naval reorganisation which Sir John Fisher has accomplished.

One of the most readable papers in the "Monthly" is Mr. G. Monroe Royce's account of Mr. Whitelaw Reid—Mr. Choate's successor as American Ambassador—who is said to be neither a typical journalist nor in truth a popular man, but who would be chosen by his fellow-American craftsmen as the representative of their best methods and highest purposes. The inexhaustible and insoluble servant problem is discussed in a serio-humorous vein by Mrs. John Lane in the "Fortnightly" and in more sober terms by Lady Barrington in the "National". In the "Nineteenth Century" General Lord Methuen describes some of the associations at home and in the colonies which are doing much to shape British lads into the kind of men required for Imperial defence. Dr. Aubrey in "Macmillan's" has an article on "The Modern Trade in Politics" aimed at political organisations, American methods of electioneering, and State Socialism. A very interesting account is given by Canon Benham in the "Treasury" of "Some Famous London Trees", which are much more numerous than the average wayfarer, who notes a tree in Stationers' Hall Court or in Gray's Inn, would imagine.

For this Week's Books see page 186.



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ART AND ARCHEOLOGY

Les Villes d'Art célèbres:—"Ravenne" (par Charles Diehl). Paris: H. Laurens. 4fr.
Le Palais de Justice de Poitiers (par Lucien Magne). Paris: Librairie Centrale des Beaux-Arts. 2.
La Légende de Koei Fseu Mou Chen (peinture de Li-Long-Mien). Paris: Librairie Centrale des Beaux-Arts. 12s.
La Collection Dutuit: Cent planches, accompagnées de notices par MM. Proehner (Antiques); E. Molinier (Objets d'Art du Moyen-âge et de la Renaissance); Emile Michel (Peintures et Dessins); H. Bouchot (Livres et Reliures). Paris: Librairie Centrale des Beaux-Arts. 26. (In four monthly parts, the first to appear end of February.)
Drawings of E. Burne-Jones. Newnes. 7s. 6d. net.

BIOGRAPHY

Alessandro Scarlatti (Edward J. Dent). Arnold. 12s. 6d. net.
Winston Spencer Churchill (A. MacCallum Scott). Methuen. 3s. 6d.
Thomas Cranmer and the English Reformation, 1489-1556 (Albert Frederick Pollard). Putnams. 6s.
Smiles' Lives of the Engineers:—George and Robert Stephenson; Boulton and Watt. Murray. 3s. 6d. each.
Diary and Letters of Madame d'Arblay (Austin Dobson. Vol. III.) Macmillan. 10s. 6d. net.
The Life of the Marquis of Dufferin and Ava (Sir Alfred Lyall. 2 vols.). Murray. 3s. 6d. net.

FICTION

My Lady of the North (Randall Parrish). Putnams. 6s.
Little Wife Hester (L. T. Meade); The Fate of Felix (Mrs. Coulson Kernahan). Long. 6s. each.
The Gate of the Desert (John Oxenham); His Island Princess (W. Clark Russell). Methuen. 6s. each.
The Bell in the Fog, and other Stories (Gertrude Atherton). Macmillan. 6s.
The Golden Bowl (Henry James). Methuen. 6s.
Eve—and the Law (Alice and Claude Askew). Chapman and Hall. 6s.
Nancy Stair (Elinor Macartney Lane). Heinemann. 6s.
Stolen Waters (Lucas Cleve). Unwin. 6s.
A New Paolo and Francesca (Annie E. Holdsworth). Lane. 6s.

HISTORY

Greek Thinkers (Professor Theodore Gomperz. Translated by G. G. Berry. Vols. II. and III.). Murray. 28s. net.
Lady Jean: the Romance of the Great Douglas Cause (Percy Fitzgerald). Unwin. 12s. net.
Scandinavia: a Political History of Denmark, Norway and Sweden, 1513-1900 (K. Nisbet Bain). Cambridge: at the University Press. 7s. 6d.
The Awakening of Japan (Okakura-kakuzo). Murray. 5s. net.
Coins of Great Britain and Ireland (late Lieutenant-Colonel W. Stewart Thorburn. 4th Edition. Revised and Enlarged by H. A. Grueber). Gill. 10s. 6d. net.
Medieval British History: a Students' Guide (J. S. Lindsey). Cambridge: Heffer. 6s. net.

MISCELLANEOUS

Armaments, The Burden of (by the Cobden Club). Unwin. 3s. 6d.
Burdett's Hospitals and Charities, 1905 (Sir Henry Burdett). Scientific Press. 5s. net.
Chopin's Works, A Handbook to (G. C. Ashton-Jonson). Heinemann.
Facts and Ideas (Philip Gibbs). Arnold. 3s. 6d.
Fire Protection in Central Europe (Edwin O. Sachs, Horace S. Folker and Ellis Marsland). British Fire Prevention Committee. 5s.
Free Trade (Rt. Hon. Lord Avebury). Macmillan. 2s. 6d.
In Loco Parentis: Chapters on Institution Life and Work (Rev. M. G. Vine). Murray. 2s. 6d. net.
Port Arthur: Three Months with the Besiegers (Frederic Villiers). Longmans. 7s. 6d. net.

BOOKS AND MANUSCRIPTS.

MESSRS. SOTHEBY, WILKINSON & HODGE will SELL BY AUCTION, at their House, No. 13 Wellington Street, Strand, W.C., on THURSDAY, February 23, 1905, and Two Following Days, at One o'clock precisely, BOOKS and MANUSCRIPTS, including a selection from the collection of W. B. TEGETMEIER, Esq., comprising an unusual collection of Books and Papers by and relating to Shelley. The property of the late JULIAN MARSHALL, Esq., including the writings of Charles Dickens, W. M. Thackeray, valuable Musical Collections, and an extensive Collection of Cuttings referring chiefly to Theatrical and Operatic Entertainments. The Library of THOMAS HUTCHINSON, Esq., containing a very extensive and interesting Collection of Present Day Literature, including many volumes with autograph inscriptions, or letters from the Authors; the writings of Robert Bridges, Norman Gale, Richard Le Gallienne, W. E. Henley, Andrew Lang, Stephen Phillips, R. L. Stevenson, &c. Other Properties, comprising Smith's Catalogue Raisonné, 9 vols.; Sporting Books; Elizabethan Dramatic Literature; Playbills; Dictionary of National Biography, a complete set; the Kelmscott Press Publications, including the Chaucer; La Fontaine, Contes et Nouvelles en Vers, 1762, with the rejected plates; Foreign Literature; Books of Prints; Modern Literature, Art and Archaeology, &c.
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A GENERAL meeting of the Robinson South African Banking Company Limited was held on Wednesday, at the office, 1 Bank Buildings, Lothbury, E.C., to consider and, if thought fit, pass a resolution for voluntary winding up. Mr. J. B. Robinson (the chairman of the company) presided.

The Acting-Secretary (Mr. E. Gilbert Howell) having read the notice convening the meeting,

The Chairman said that since the formation of the bank in October, 1895, dividends had been distributed amounting to £1,360,941 13s. 2d., and £1,500,000 of the original capital of £3,300,000 had been returned to the shareholders. Should the bank now be wound up the shareholders would have received in cash £4,360,941 13s. 2d., exclusive of the assets yet to be realised. The position, therefore, at the moment showed that the cash which the bank now held, as well as the other assets which had to be realised, would be very nearly a clear profit to the shareholders. The Jameson Raid, the South African War, and other events had been largely prejudicial to the bank's transactions, and though progress was being made in the Transvaal the board were quite convinced that the position was commercially but slightly better than it was twelve months ago. Reference had also been made to some other banking institutions which were carrying on business in South Africa, and it was said that these were continuing their course. That was so, but it must be borne in mind that some of them had been established for forty or fifty years, and during that period they had accumulated a large reserve. He had had a consultation with certain shareholders respecting the proposal now before the meeting, and a suggestion had been made to him for the formation of a trust company. Of late nearly all the financial groups connected with the Transvaal had more or less formed trust companies. It was proposed that a trust should be constituted with a capital of £4,000,000. The present shareholders of the bank, as well as the shareholders of the Randfontein Estates, Langlaagte Estates, and Block B Langlaagte, should have the preference to subscribe for the trust shares at par. The full details of the scheme had not yet been completed; but it had been suggested that, in the first instance, only 10s. per share should be called up, which would amount to £4,000,000, and, so soon as this money had been profitably invested, a further call of 10s. per share would be made. That, he thought, was a wise precaution, as it did not overload the trust with too much money at the beginning of operations. It had now been established beyond doubt that the gold and diamond mines of the Transvaal would constitute the emporium of South Africa. It was there that they must direct their attention and concentrate their energies. A trust with a capital of £3,000,000 or £4,000,000 could bring about very great changes in the advancement and prosperity of certain factors in the Transvaal. As the holder of a considerable number of bank shares, he would be entitled to apply for an equal number of shares in the trust company, should the latter be formed; but he would be prepared to allow the smaller shareholders of the bank, if they desired to do so, to apply for more trust shares than they would be entitled to under their present holding. He thought there was every likelihood of the scheme going through, and all he could say was that there was a strong and earnest desire to carry it out, pregnant as it was with future possibilities. Now, however, they had simply to decide whether they should continue the bank's business in face of the difficulties to which he had drawn their attention, or whether they should vote to discontinue further operations. It was a wise policy to take advantage of the moment, now that they had the greater part of their assets in liquid form, to wind up the bank, distributing the cash assets to the shareholders, and, upon the realisation of its other assets, to make a further distribution. As far as cash was concerned, they would be able to return the amount of capital in a very short time.

Mr. G. R. Hanitsch moved that the bank be voluntarily wound up, and Mr. Max Deutsch seconded the proposal.

Mr. Hedges said if the bank had done so well, in spite of the difficulties which had had to be faced during the last four years, it was extraordinary, now that the outlook was peaceful and there were prospects of progress, that the company should think of going into liquidation. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. Henry Samuel proposed an amendment in favour of an adjournment, which Mr. Hedges seconded.

The Chairman asked if it were likely, being a large shareholder that he would wish to wind up the bank, and, if possible, form a trust company, unless he believed that that course would be the more advantageous one.

The amendment was withdrawn, and the resolution carried unanimously.

ROBINSON GOLD MINING COMPANY, LIMITED.
Johannesburg, Transvaal.

From the Directors' Report for December, 1904.

Gold Recovered.

From	BULLION.		FINE GOLD.	
	Total.	Per ton milled.	Total.	Per ton milled.
	Ozs.	Dwts.	Ozs.	Dwts.
Mill	11,701'85	8'802	10,183'739	7'745
Tailings	3,405'74	2'590	2,859'560	2'175
Slimes	1,809'39	1'375	1,516'119	1'152
Own Concentrates ..	646'54	0'493	622'698	0'473
Total from own Ore ..	17,563'58	13'356	15,182'116	11'545
Purchased Concentrates	395'06		384'118	
	17,958'64		15,566'234	

Expenditure and Revenue.

200 Stamps crushed 25,300 tons.

EXPENDITURE.

	£	s.	d.	Per ton milled.
	£	s.	d.	£
Mining Account (including Development) ..	17,613	17	10	0 13 4'735
Milling Account	4,048	19	9	0 3 0'948
Cyaniding and Chlorinating Accounts (including Vanning)	3,674	19	6	0 2 9'536
General Expenses (including Maintenance) ..	1,848	15	1	0 1 4'871
	27,186	12	2	1 0 8'090
Profit on Working	36,855	14	7	1 8 0'326
	64,042	6	9	2 8 8'416

REVENUE.

Accounts—	£	s.	d.	Per ton milled.
From Mill	42,958	6	10	1 12 8'015
From Tailings	12,095	13	11	0 9 2'379
From Slimes	6,367	13	9	0 4 10'108
From Own Concentrates	2,620	12	2	0 1 11'914
	64,042	6	9	2 8 8'416

No provision has been made in the above account for payment of the 10 per cent. Profits Tax.

S. C. STEIL, Secretary.

ROBINSON GOLD MINING CO., LIMITED.

Notice to Shareholders.

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN that the Fifteenth Ordinary General Meeting of Shareholders, for the year ending 31st December, 1904, will be held in the Board Room, The Corner House, Johannesburg, on Wednesday, 29th March, 1905, at 11 A.M., for the following purposes:—

- (1) To receive and consider the Balance-Sheet and Profit and Loss and Revenue Accounts for the year ending 31st December, 1904, and the Reports of the Directors and Auditors.
- (2) To elect a Director in place of Mr. R. W. Schumacher, who retires by rotation, but who is eligible, and offers himself for re-election.
- (3) To elect two Auditors in the place of Messrs. Macrae and Andersson & Co., who retire, but are eligible for re-election, and to fix their remuneration for the past Audit.
- (4) To transact general business.

The Share Transfer Books will be closed from the 23rd to the 29th March, 1905, both days inclusive.

Holders of Share Warrants to Bearer wishing to be present or represented at the Meeting must deposit their Share Warrants at the places and within the times following:—

- (a) At the Head Office of the Company in Johannesburg, at least twenty-four hours before the time appointed for the holding of the Meeting.
- (b) At the London Office of the Company, No. 1 London Wall Buildings, London, E.C., at least thirty days before the date appointed for the holding of the Meeting.
- (c) At the Banque de Paris et des Pays Bas, 3 Rue d'Antin, Paris, at least thirty days before the date appointed for the holding of the Meeting.

By order,

ANDREW MOIR, London Secretary.

London Office: No. 1 London Wall Buildings, E.C.,
9th February, 1905.

To the Holders of the Bonds of the

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In view of the present situation in Santo Domingo we deem it to the advantage of all Bondholders to unite with a view to the proper presentation of their claims. As holders and representatives of holders of a large amount of the Bonds we invite you to deposit your Bonds with us for mutual co-operation. It is our intention to prepare an agreement under which we shall be empowered to act as agents for the Bondholders who deposit their Bonds with us. Depositors who may not desire to assent to the terms of that agreement will have the right of withdrawing their securities, free of expense, for at least two weeks after publication of notice that such agreement has been prepared. We deem it important that prompt action be taken, and that your Bonds be at once deposited with us.

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THE HONGKONG & SHANGHAI BANKING CORPORATION, either by itself or associated with others, is authorised by the CHINESE IMPERIAL GOVERNMENT to issue the above Loan and is now prepared jointly with THE DEUTSCH-ASIATISCHE BANK to receive subscriptions for £1,000,000 sterling. The price of subscription in London is 97 per cent., payable as follows:—

5 per cent. on Application,
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25 per cent. on 27th March, 1905.
21 per cent. on 26th April, 1905.
21 per cent. on 29th May, 1905.

97

Payment in full can be made under discount at 2 per cent. per annum upon Allotment.

The Loan is for 20 years redeemable at par in 20 equal yearly instalments of £50,000 each commencing after the first year; but the Chinese Imperial Government can redeem the bonds earlier at their option on giving 6 months' notice.

The Loan is repayable at par by drawings (unless redeemed previously), which will take place in London in the month of January in each year, beginning with 1906, before a Notary Public at the office of the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, and the Bonds will be paid off at par on the 1st March following, after which interest on Bonds so drawn will cease.

The Loan Agreement referred to hereafter provides that the Chinese Government shall appropriate every three months out of the revenue from the Peking octroi duties, estimated to amount to Tls. 800,000 per annum, which are paid in as collected to the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank at Peking, the amount required for the Service of the Loan. If these receipts should be insufficient, it is further provided by the Agreement that the deficiency shall be made good by additional payments from other sources into the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation at Peking.

The Loan is specially secured, both as regards principal and interest, by the hypothecation of the revenues collected from the general Likin Tax in the Province of Shansi to the extent of Tls. 800,000 per annum, and in case of default, it is provided by the Loan Agreement that this Likin Tax shall be collected by the Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs Administration.

In the event of the Chinese Imperial Government negotiating for a revision of the Chinese Customs Tariff during the currency of this Loan, it is agreed on the one hand that such Tariff revision shall not be barred by the fact that the Loan is secured by the foregoing Likin revenues, and on the other hand that the Likin duties pledged for the service of this Loan shall neither be decreased nor abolished, except by arrangement made with the Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation, and only then for an equivalent first charge upon increased Customs Revenue consequent upon such Tariff revision.

The contract for the Loan is contained in an Agreement dated 3rd February, 1905, made between the Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation and the Deutsch-Asiatische Bank on the one part, and by Chao Erh-tsun, President of the Board of Revenue, on the other part, and confirmed and sanctioned by Imperial Edict of the 5th February, 1905.

The Loan is exempt from all present and future Chinese Taxes.

Subject to Loans at present unredeemed, this Loan has priority, both as regards principal and interest, over all future Loans, Charges, or Mortgages, and so long as this Loan or any part thereof shall remain unredeemed, the Chinese Imperial Government undertake that no Loan, Charge, or Mortgage shall be raised or created

which shall in any manner lessen or impair the security over the said Likin Revenues, so far as they are required for the service of this Loan, and that any future Loan, Charge, or Mortgage charged upon the said Likin Revenues shall be made subject to this Loan, and that it shall be so expressed in every agreement for any such future Loan, Charge, or Mortgage.

Application must be made on the enclosed form, accompanied by the deposit of 5 per cent.

Scrip Certificates to Bearer will be delivered as soon as possible in exchange for Allotment Letters and Bankers' Receipts.

Bonds sealed by the Chinese Minister in London or Berlin will be delivered by the issuing Banks in exchange for the Scrip Certificates as soon as possible after payment of the last instalment.

Default in payment of any instalment at due date will render previous payments liable to forfeiture.

If no allotment is made the deposit will be returned in full, and if only a portion of the amount applied for is allotted, the balance of the deposit will be applied towards payment of the amount due on allotment.

Forms of application may be obtained from the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, 31 Lombard Street, London, E.C.: from Messrs. Panmure Gordon & Co., Hatton Court, London, E.C.; and from Messrs. Stephenson, Harwood & Co., 31 Lombard Street, London, E.C.

31 Lombard Street, London.
10th February, 1905.

Copy of Letter from HIS EXCELLENCY CHANG TEH YI the Minister for China in London:—

Chinese Legation,
London, 6th February, 1905.

The Manager,
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation,
31 Lombard Street, E.C.

Sir,

I have much pleasure in informing you that I have received a telegram from the Wai Wu-Pu acquainting me that the Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation, conjointly with the Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, have been charged by the Imperial Chinese Government with the issuing of a 5 per cent. Gold Loan of £1,000,000 sterling, and that the Imperial Edict authorising it has already been issued; also that I shall be prepared to seal the Bonds whenever presented to me for that purpose.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,
(Signed) T. Y. CHANG,
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of
His Majesty the Emperor of China.

THIS FORM OF APPLICATION MAY BE USED.

To be retained by the Bankers.

CHINESE IMPERIAL GOVERNMENT 5 PER CENT. GOLD LOAN OF 1905, For £1,000,000 Sterling.

Offered for Public Subscription in London and Germany.

To the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation,
31 Lombard Street, London, E.C.

I request that you will allot to me £..... of the above Loan in accordance with the Prospectus dated 10th February, 1905, upon which I have paid the deposit of £..... being at the rate of 5 per cent., and I engage to accept the same, or any less amount which you may allot to me and to make the remaining payments thereon in terms of the Prospectus.

Note.—
Please
Write
Distinctly.
Ordinary Signature
*Name (in full).....
Address.....
Date....., 1905.

All Cheques to be made payable to Bearer and crossed " & Co." A separate Cheque must accompany each application.

* Add whether Mr., Mrs., or Miss, and Title if any.

SEVENTY-SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF THE NATIONAL PROVINCIAL BANK OF ENGLAND, LIMITED.

SUBSCRIBED CAPITAL	- - -	£15,900,000.
CAPITAL—Paid	- - -	£3,000,000
Uncalled	- - -	2,300,000
Reserve Liability	- - -	10,600,000
		£15,900,000

RESERVE FUND (invested in English Government Securities), **£2,300,000.**

NUMBER OF SHAREHOLDERS, 15,701.

DIRECTORS.

COLIN FREDERICK CAMPBELL, Esq.
MAURICE OTHO FITZGERALD, Esq.
WILLIAM HENRY NEVILLE GOSCHEN, Esq.
CLAUDE VILLIERS EMILIUS LAURIE, Esq.
FRANCIS CHARLES LE MARCHANT, Esq.
The RIGHT HON. the EARL OF LICHFIELD.

Sir JAMES LYLE MACKAY, G.C.M.G., K.C.I.E.
GEORGE FORBES MALCOLMSON, Esq.
WILLIAM ROBERT MOBERLY, Esq.
SELWYN ROBERT PRYOR, Esq.
THOMAS GEORGE ROBINSON, Esq.
ROBERT WIGRAM, Esq.

JOINT GENERAL MANAGERS.

FREDERICK CHURCHWARD, Esq., ROBERT THOMAS HAINES, Esq., and THOMAS ESTALL, Esq.

ASSISTANT GENERAL MANAGER.

DAVID JOHN HOWARD CUNNICK, Esq.

SOLICITORS.

ERNEST JAMES WILDE, Esq.

WALTER EDWARD MOORE, Esq.

The Directors have the pleasure to submit the balance sheet for the year 1904, and to report that after making provision for all bad and doubtful debts, and for the rebate of discount on current bills, the profit, including £33,288 5s. 4d. brought forward, amounts to £631,476 18s., which has been appropriated as follows:—

Interim Dividend of 8 per cent. paid in August last	£240,000	0	0
A further Dividend of 9 per cent. (making 17 per cent. for the year, free of Income Tax), payable 8th proximo	270,000	0	0
Transferred to the Knarborough and Claro Bank, Limited, Purchase Account	20,000	0	0
Transferred to the Bank Premises Account	15,000	0	0
Balance carried forward	86,476	18	0
	£631,476	18	0

The Directors retiring by rotation are Messrs. William Henry Neville Goschen, Francis Charles Le Marchant, and George Forbes Malcolmson, all of whom, being eligible, offer themselves for re-election.

During the past year New Branches have been opened in London at 114 High Holborn, W.C. 155 Mare Street, Hackney, N.E. Savoy Court, 96 and 97 Strand, W.C.

And in the Country at Bolton (Lancashire), Carnarvon, Oldham (Lancashire), and Wakefield.

Also Sub-branches at 68 Linthorpe Road, Middlesbrough. 133 Woodhouse Lane, Leeds, and Northumberland Street, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

In conformity with the Act of Parliament, the Shareholders are required to elect the Auditors and fix their remuneration. Mr. Edwin Waterhouse (of Messrs. Price, Waterhouse and Co.) and Mr. William Barclay Peat (of Messrs. W. B. Peat and Co.), the retiring Auditors, offer themselves for re-election.

BALANCE SHEET, DECEMBER 31, 1904.

CAPITAL.—				LIABILITIES.				ASSETS.			
40,000 Shares of £75 each, £10 10s. paid	£420,000	0	0		Cash—			
215,000 " £60 " £12 " "	2,580,000	0	0		At Bank of England and at Head Office and Branches	£7,820,752	13	4
				3,000,000	0	0		" Call and Short Notice	3,648,850	17	6
				2,300,000	0	0					£11,469,603 10 10
Reserve Fund	Investments—			
Current, Deposit, and other Accounts, including rebate on Bills not due, provision for bad and doubtful debts, &c.	50,883,477	14	6		English Government Securities	£8,811,833	18	3
Acceptances and Endorsements of Foreign Bills on Account of Customers	390,578	0	0		Indian and Colonial Government Securities, Debenture, Guaranteed, and Preference Stocks of British Railways; British Corporation and Waterworks Stocks	5,116,312	1	2
Profit and Loss Account:—								Canal, Dock, River Conservancy, and other Investments	517,678	4	4
Balance of Profit and Loss Account, including £33,288 5s. 4d. brought from year 1903	£631,476	18	0					14,445,624 3 9
Less Interim Dividend, 8 per cent. paid in August last	£240,000	0	0					Customers for Acceptances and Endorsements of Foreign Bills, <i>per contra</i>	390,578	0	0
Less Dividend of 9 per cent. payable February 8 next	270,000	0	0					Bills Discounted, Loans, &c.	29,517,452	2	2
Less transferred to Knarborough and Claro Bank, Limited, Purchase Account	20,000	0	0					Bank Premises in London and Country	647,074	15	9
Less Transferred to Bank Premises Account	15,000	0	0								
				545,000	0	0					
				86,476	18	0					
				£56,470,532	12	6					£56,470,532 12 6

M. O. FITZGERALD,
G. F. MALCOLMSON,
ROBT. WIGRAM, } Directors.

F. CHURCHWARD,
B. T. HAINES,
T. ESTALL, } Joint General Managers.

In accordance with the provisions of the Companies Act, 1900, we certify that all our requirements as Auditors have been complied with; and we report that we have ascertained the correctness of the Cash Balances at the Head Office, the Money at Call and Short Notice, and the securities representing the Investments of the Bank; and having examined the Balance Sheet in detail with the books at the Head Office and with the certified returns from each Branch, we are of opinion that such Balance Sheet is full and fair and properly drawn up so as to exhibit a true and correct view of the state of the Bank's affairs, as shown by such books and returns.

January 19, 1905.

EDWIN WATERHOUSE,
WILLIAM BARCLAY PEAT, } Auditors.

At the ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING (ROBERT WIGRAM, Esq., in the Chair) the above Report was adopted. The retiring Directors, GEORGE FORBES MALCOLMSON, FRANCIS CHARLES LE MARCHANT, and WILLIAM HENRY NEVILLE GOSCHEN, were re-elected.

Mr. EDWIN WATERHOUSE and Mr. WILLIAM BARCLAY PEAT were re-appointed Auditors for the current year.

The best thanks of the proprietors were given to the Directors, General Managers, Branch Managers, and other Officers of the Bank for their efficient services, and to the Chairman for his able conduct in the chair.

The National Provincial Bank of England, Limited, having numerous Branches in England and Wales, as well as Agents and Correspondents at home and abroad, affords great facilities to its customers, who may have money transmitted to the credit of their Accounts through any of the Branches, free of charge.

At Head Office and Metropolitan Branches, Deposits are received and interest allowed thereon at the rates advertised by the Bank in the London newspapers from time to time, and Current Accounts are conducted on the usual terms.

The Bank undertakes the Agency of Private and Joint-Stock Banks, also the Purchase and Sale of all British and Foreign Stocks and Shares, and the collection of Dividends, Annuities, &c.

Circular Notes and Letters of Credit, payable at the principal towns abroad, are issued for the use of travellers.

At the Country Branches Current Accounts are opened, Deposits received, and all other Banking business conducted.

The Officers of the Bank are bound to secrecy as regards the transactions of its customers.

Copies of the Annual Report of the Bank, Lists of Branches, Agents, and Correspondents, may be had on application at the Head Office, and at any of the Bank's Branches.

By order of the Directors,

F. CHURCHWARD,
B. T. HAINES,
T. ESTALL, } Joint General Managers.

January 20, 1905.

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